CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The following section deals with the review of literature with regard to adolescent, parenting style, anger and aggression, altruism, study habit and gender differences in adolescents. It is an important section before any research work can be executed.

2.1 The Adolescent

Adolescence has always been an interesting stage of life to explore. Adolescence can be viewed as a tunnel, through which all must pass. It is a unique period in life cycle that presents challenges and full of excitement. At the same time it demands adjustment on many fronts. It is the vulnerable age group in the society. Adolescence is a time of life when the child is on the threshold of adulthood. It is a period of intense and rapid development and is characterized by numerous developmental tasks including gaining new and more mature relationship with others, achieving emotional independence from parents and the cognitive and psychological resources to face the challenges of adult life (Hazen, Schlozman & Beresin, 2008). Thus this is the time when the responsibilities of a mature adult are slowly becoming manifest in the child’s mind. The adolescent mind is filled with dreams of future, and perhaps even some fantasy. Adolescents acquire the increasing ability to think abstractly and hypothetically. They can picture situations that did not occur (Steinberg, 2002). Much of these centers around the adolescent’s future vocation. To prepare for this, he/she has to turn to studies, as this is quite often the gate way to spiritual and material success.

WHO (2013) identifies adolescence as the period in human growth and development that occurs after childhood and before adulthood. Adolescents aged
between 10-19 years account for more than one-fifth of the world’s population although more recent research suggests that adolescence can continue into the early 20s (Egbert, 2002). Adolescence is a transitional period of development from childhood to adulthood with evident biological and emotional changes. These changes bring transformation and reorganization in family relationships (Steinberg, 1990). According to Sunmola (2002), the transition is characterized by an increase in personal control, responsibilities and independence.

Adolescence is the transitional period between late childhood and the beginning of adulthood. Adolescents experience numerous developmental challenges which includes increasing need for independence, evolving sexuality, transitioning through education and beginning employment, negotiating changing relationships with family, peers and developing personal ethics and a healthy identity (Cameron & Karabanow, 2003). Adolescence is much than more one rung up the ladder from childhood. It is a transition period for ego-development, levels of aspiration, socialization, religious beliefs, achievements that play a significant role in adolescent development. In fact, it is considered that adolescence is a time of discovery, a time to try new things whether it is about self-identity or about choosing peers (Prinstein & Dodge, 2008).

The young adolescent goes through a period of significant physical, emotional, intellectual, moral and social change. The nature of these changes is intense and varied. Adolescents also experience significant changes in their ability to assess and comprehend complex situations and information and in their desire to become independent and unique individuals (Stang & Story, 2005).
The beginning of biological growth and development during adolescence is signified by the onset of puberty, which is often defined as the physical transformation of a child into an adult. Adolescents experience dramatic physical growth and development during puberty, which in turn, appreciably increase their requirements for energy, protein and many vitamins and minerals. We not only observe the physical growth but we also see what Hall (1904) referred to as the introduction of “ranging hormones” and these hormonal changes often invite moodiness. Neurological changes may also occur during adolescence and that also suggests that the connection between neurons affecting emotional, physical and mental abilities is incomplete. Due to these significant hormonal and physical changes some behavioral patterns may change like sleep pattern, increased risk-taking behavior and decreased satisfaction with daily life (White, 2005).

The stage of adolescence is a time of great cognitive development. At the beginning of adolescence, cognitive abilities are dominated by concrete thinking, egocentrism and impulsive behavior. It is a time individuals acquire new cognitive skills and become more mature in their reasoning and problem solving abilities and to develop the process of thinking and making judgments about rectitude and good work. It is during adolescence that the ability to begin to see cause and effect comes into play that helps to create a more responsible and thoughtful decision-making process. Adolescence is a formal operational stage and the protagonist is able to think through and test hypotheses. This cognitive development needs stimulating interaction and emotional support which is done through the social relationship between adolescents and parents, peers and teachers (Dunn, 2011).

Moral development is a process through which a child develops proper attitudes or behaviors towards the other people in society based on various factors
such social and cultural norms, laws and rules. Moral development is every parent's concern because parents have the responsibility to teach a child to distinguish between what is right and wrong and then behave accordingly. Piaget theorized that the way humans think out moral issues depends on their level of cognitive development. During the early adolescent period, peers have a much greater influence. The new ability to think abstractly enables youth to recognize that rules are simply created by other people. By late adolescence most teens are less rebellious as they have begun to establish their own identity, their own belief system and their own place in the world. Adolescents may feel passionate about their moral code and demonstrate their moral convictions.

Adolescents’ dramatic biological changes can significantly affect psychosocial development. Adolescence has been considered as a period marked with identity crisis which is regarded as a “psychosocial crisis” (Erikson, 1968). According to Erikson’s theory of psychosocial development the adolescent goes through a phase of crisis in the process of self-defining. Crisis is a period of ego identity development. It is an integral part of healthy psychosocial development (Santrock, 2004). Self esteem and self competence are the major factors in evolving identity in adolescents. These are the psychosocial attributes which emerge in adolescence and are central in fostering identity and personality development. On the other hand social relation is in the central dimension of adolescents psychosocial development. Different types of social relationships play different roles in motivating the development of social understanding (Dunn, 2011).

Adolescents strive for self-identity, recognition and independence. Due to feelings of uncertainty and ambiguity they are neither child nor adult. When their feelings are denied they become rebellious and undergo stress, tension, frustration and
many other mental disturbances. At the same time, the competition in school increases at this stage, and the parental expectation also increases to levels beyond their children’s capacity. During this vulnerable stage, adolescents require attachment and emotional support by which they can meet the demands and expectations of life with confidence. Adolescence is the age of doing new things and gather new experiences. This is the age when child is more anxious to develop new relationships between parents, peers, teachers, relatives and others. At this age strong relationship with parents is suggested. As parents’ familiarize their children with home environment. Similarly, parents should stand with children while introducing them to the out of home environment. Early adolescence marks an important turning point in the parent-child relationship. These biological, cognitive, social and psychosocial changes of this period spark transformations in the parent-child relationship. Although the relationship between adolescents and their peer develop significantly, the parent-adolescent relationship retains its importance.

2.1.1 Factors That Influence The Adolescent

There are some factors that influence the transition period of adolescence. During this stage, there may be some changes in their thinking process, attitude as well as their behavior. That’s why; they need to adapt these changes successfully through the influence of `parents, peers and other environmental factors.

2.1.1.1 Peers Influence on Adolescents’ Life:

Adolescence is a time when peers play an increasingly important role in the lives of youth. The peer-adolescent relationship is more intimate, exclusive and complex in contemporary times. According to Santrock (2010), peers are the individuals who are about the same age or maturity level. According to Castrogiovanni (2000), peer group is defined as a small group of similarly aged; fairly
close friends, sharing same activities. Peer groups are networks of interacting individuals who spend time together and share activities (Brown & Klute, 2003).

Peers have a significant function in adolescent life because as children grow up, their attachment, closeness becomes more distant from parents both physically and psychologically. So their relationship with peers are becomes stronger.

An adolescent encounters several groups of peers – in school or college, in the neighborhood, in the playground and so on. All these groups have their unique criteria, norms, cultures, beliefs and most of all different values. Adolescents’ behavior, attitude, thinking and perception about life depends on how these peer groups affect their life. Peers have a great influence on adolescent’s attitudes, speech, appearance, values and illicit activities (Gardener & Steinberg, 2005; O’Brien & Bierman, 1988). On the other hand, adolescents have strong needs to be involved and accepted by friends and peers. Gaining membership in a peer group can result in pleasurable feelings. In contrast, when adolescents failed to develop close relationship with their peers they often fall prey to a variety of behavioral problems like anxiety, depression, externalizing behavior such as increased aggression. La Greca & Harrison (2005) discovered that adolescents who closely associate with peer tend to show less social anxiety and depression.

Several research studies show that, positive peer influence ensures a positive sense of self, heighten school achievement, promote positive involvement in social developmental tasks and improves mental health (Maxwell, 2002; Mounts & Steinberg, 1995; Newman et al., 2007; Ramirez et al., 2012; Tarrant, 2002). Johnson (2000) carried out a study on “The peer group effect on academic achievement among public elementary school students” indicated that peer effect had a strong influence on academic achievement. In a study by Wentzel et al.,
2004 demonstrated that students who have a reciprocated friendship in middle school show increased level of prosocial behavior and academic achievement. Nelson and DeBacker (2008) found a positive correlation between adolescents who experience positive relationship with peers and students achievement. Newman & Colleagues (2007) suggests that, Peers attachment, involvement and successful negotiation plays an important role in the healthy psycho-social development of adolescents. Through peer interaction adolescent explore their personal identity and discover autonomy as separate and independent existence from the parents. According to Conger (1973), peers provide,

- The opportunity to learn how to interact with age-mates, to control
- Social behavior to develop age-relevant skills and interest, and to share
- Similar problems and feelings.

So peer interaction can help to maintain the well-being of adolescence, which according to Kehily (2007) means to be happy and be actively involved in life and with other people of the outside world.

The study by Jacobson & Burdsal (2012), demonstrated relational significance of peer influences to academic performance during adolescents. The sample consisted of 321 participants in 6th, 7th and 8th grade from three medium sized suburban, public middle schools in Midwest. Academic performance was measured as a grade point average of the scores for the subjects. Results support the hypothesis that adolescent’s relationships with peers influence academic performance. The results of this study provide evidence for the importance of adolescent friendships and their impact on academic performance.
Peer pressure is a social factor that means being motivated or pushed over by friends to do something that they may not wish to do. Peer pressure is portrayed mostly as a negative force. A teen who is not a risk taker may get involved in dangerous activity because his/her friends are doing so. Negative effect of peer pressure may result in taking drugs, smoking, doing badly in school and most of all aggressive behavior. Sometimes peer pressure can cause depression that can lead to lifelong problems. The more the teenagers spend time with peers, the more they trust them and probably imitate them. As well on the other hand, highly aggressive children are rejected by their peers for their poor social skills that accompany their aggression (Parker & Asher 1987, Pope, Bierrman & Mumma, 1989). Chung & Steinberg (2006) found that adolescents begin to depend on their peers rather than their parents for acceptance. As peer pressure becomes stronger, peers’ opinions become more important than those of parents (Santor et al., 2000; Zinzow et al., 2009). When adolescents spend time with deviant peers and do not attend school regularly, they are likely to be involved in aggressive behaviors (Mahoney & Stattin, 2000).

In the study by Engels & Bogt (2001), examined whether substance use, transgressive behavior and delinquency are related to the quality of peer relations. Univariate analysis of data of a study on 508 samples of 12-18 years olds showed that substance use and transgressive behavior are positively related to both the quantity and quality of peer relations. This suggests that social functions of risk behaviors may be understood as providing the opportunity to intensify contacts with peers or initiate new relation that, in turn, may related to peer relations in a positive sense.
2.1.1.2 *Parental influence on the adolescent’s life*:

The parent-child relationship has been studied extensively as it is closely related to many social issues (Bernado, 2010). Adolescents who are securely attached to their parents display higher LS (Armsden & Greenberg, 1987; Nickerson & Nagle, 2004); academic success (Bell, Allen, Hauser, & O’Conner, 1996; Cutrona, Cole, Colangelo, Assouline, & Russell, 1994); interpersonal functioning (Black & McCartney, 1997); self-efficacy (Arbona & Power, 2003; Thompson, 1999); and lower psychological distress (Bradford & Lyddon, 1994). Bednar & Fisher (2003) further opine that, adolescents tend to turn to their parents instead of peers in times of need to make decisions. Howard et al., (2006) stated that, when parents increase the amount of quality time with their child, they enhance the emotional bonding and make a strong, close relationship with their children. Research by Harris (2002) indicates that, the parent-child relationship is important in the life of infants, young adolescents and late teens. Parent-child relationship is one of the most influential factors by which adolescents adopt social interactions, education, nutrition and also problem behaviors (Hair, Jager & Garrett, 2002). The high quality of parent-adolescent relationships are linked to a wide range of positive outcomes, mental and emotional well-being, adjustment, social competence and also decreased problem behaviors (Borkowsky, Ramey & Bristol-Power, 2002; Hair et al., 2002). Parental support refers to parental affectionate qualities and is associated with characteristics like warmth, acceptance and involvement. High levels of parental support are related to affection for parents, community attachment, happiness, life satisfaction and also low psychological distress. Another study by Barber & Erickson, (2001); Hair et al., (2002) indicates that, parent adolescent relationship is directly associated with self-confidence,
empathy and cooperative personality. On the contrary, poor quality parent-adolescent relationships are associated with the antisocial tendencies (Barber & Erickson, 2001).

Identity development is a key task of adolescence and that occurs in the context of warm and interactive parent-adolescent relationship. Parental rejection, poor family communication and lack of parental bonding which are the factors of family negatively affect the formation of the identity of an adolescent (Heaven, 2001). A balance between psychological and behavioral freedom from the parents make a close and supportive relationship and is the main criteria of identity development. Parental acceptance provides healthy social and emotional adjustment (Akkuset al., 2010). It is positively associated with ego strength (Ahmed et al., 2008), social adjustment (Gulay, 2011) and emotional adjustment (Alegre & Benson, 2008).

One of the core societal values that parents try to teach their children is sharing and caring and to make their children kind and generous. That is, thoughtful parents develop qualities of altruism in their children (Eisenberg, 1983). The study by Carlo et al., (2007) explored the relations among parenting styles, parental practices, sympathy and prosocial behaviors of adolescents. The respondents were 233 adolescents from public high schools in the Midwestern region of the United States. The researcher found evidence that, parenting practices were significantly associated with adolescents’ prosocial behaviors. Shaver & Milkulincer (2005) concluded that, the secure attachment in early life may help to foster a capacity for compassion and altruism that carries forward into adulthood. Akhter (2011) defines attachment styles as the typical ways of interacting in close relationships. Meyers & Landsberger (2002) described attachment as the ways in which adults think, feel and interact in the context of their relationships. Komagata & Komagata (2008) opined that, secure attachment of parents helped to develop balance personalities in children.
The study by Arzeen, Hasan & Riaz (2012) examined the differences between emotionally empathic and non-empathic adolescent’s perception of parental acceptance and rejection. The sample comprised of 100 girls and 100 boys between 13 to 17 years of age. The respondents were taken from private, government and semi government schools of Wah Cantt. Emotional Empathic Scale (Ashraf, 2004) and Parental Acceptance – Rejection Questionnaire (Haque, 1981) were used to collect data from the adolescents. The results indicated that, the right sort of parenting style predisposed the empathy level of adolescents. Emotionally empathic adolescents were significantly different from non-empathic adolescents in respect to the parental acceptance-rejection dimension.

Home and Family has also been recognized as an influential component of academic achievement of children (Nzewuawah, 1995; Ajila & Olutola, 2007). The study by Daulta (2008) found that, there is a positive impact of good quality home environment on the scholastic achievement of children. This means that a healthy home environment is significantly associated with high levels of success in school. Warm parental relations with adolescents also showed universal association with positive psychosocial outcomes, psychological well-being, self esteem and academic achievement of adolescents. According to Ahuja & Goyal (2005) high parental involvement leads to high achievement and low parental involvement leads to low achievement. Parental strategies and academic success have been found to be interrelated. The study by Rogers et al., (2009) found that, the use of proper support and encouragement, parents provide their children with a sense of initiative and confidence in relation to learning. According to Jeynes (2010), children who are doing better in school are more likely to have parents who hold high expectation for their children’s educational achievement. Parents who believe in the importance of doing
well in school may attempt to instill such an attitude in their children. Epstein (2001) suggested that, parents who are informed and involved in their children’s school can positively impact their child’s attitude and performance. Parental involvement can have a positive impact on student’s academic work at all grade levels.

The study by Letha (2013) examined the perception of adolescents about their parents’ influence in academic activities. The sample comprised of 200 students of class XI from senior secondary schools in Delhi. Their age range was 15 to 19 years. The tool was constructed by the researcher and consisted of a questionnaire with 40 agree-disagree statements. The results indicated that, the adolescent students perceived their parents as influencing their academic activities and parental support was the main component of parental influence.

The national Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) in 1994 conducted a study to find out the relationship between study habits and academic performance of students. This study revealed a positive correlation between study habit and academic achievement. Singh (2011) examined academic achievement and study habits of higher secondary students. The result indicated that girls and boys differ significantly in their study habits and academic achievement. It found that effective study habits help students to achieve good results (Sadia, 2005). Poor study habits, as observed by Kemjika (1998) definitely ends in poor academic performance. The child-rearing pattern of parents is also an important factor in good study habits as well as academic achievement of adolescents. Researchers have found a strong positive relationship between parents initiated involvement practices and school outcomes (see Epstein and Sanders, 2002; Hess and Holloway, 1984; Hill et al., in press).
Adolescent anti-social behavior is related to poor child rearing practices, poor supervision, harsh discipline, parental disharmony, rejection of the children, and low involvement (Scott, 1998; Simons et al., 2007). When children are rejected by their parents, their sense of conscientiousness is likely to be negatively affected, their feelings of empathy are likely to be lowered, and their perception of their self-worth is likely to be negative (Buikhuisen, 1988). Parents who are cruel, rejecting, or display anti-social traits have been found to significantly influence the manifestation of behavioral problems in children and adolescents Barnow, Schuckit, Lucht, & Freyberger, 2002; Patterson, 1999). It has also been found in a study published in an issue of ‘The Journal of Children Psychology and Psychiatry’ that over reactive parenting such as heavy criticism or yelling as a response to children’s negative behaviour can produce higher levels of aggression or rule breaking in children who are normally introverted, non-violent and imaginative (2010).

2.1.1.3. Influence of Socio-economic status on the adolescent’s life

Socio-economic status is a standing position of a group or an individual. It is a combination of education, income and occupation. Low socio-economic status and its variables like lower education, poverty and poor health ultimately affect the society. Letourneau et al., (2011) conducted a meta-analysis of research on the relationship between socioeconomic status and developmental outcomes for children and adolescents from birth to 19 years. The results revealed that there were significant effects of socioeconomic status on the aspects of some variables —literacy and language, aggression and internalizing behavior and developmental process. On the contrary, lower socioeconomic status has highly negative effects on the wellbeing and development of children and adolescents.
The study by Duhan & Balda (2012) compared the personalities of adolescents on the basis of socioeconomic status. The sample comprised of 45 urban respondents and 45 rural respondents who were between 13-18 years of age from Hiser, Haryana. For this study two questionnaires were formulated and data were collected from the school of the aforesaid area. Descriptive statistics were used to calculate the data. The findings indicated that, there were significant differences in personality of adolescents on the basis of socioeconomic status and there were also significant differences between maturity level, mental health, self-control, self-sufficiency of adolescents from different castes.

Sharma (2013), investigated the correlation between family relationship and mental health of adolescents from Dibrugarh, Assam. A sample of 100 participants was randomly selected from the mixed group of students of high and low socioeconomic status. Mental Health Check-List and Dr.G.P.Sherry and Dr.J.C.Sinha,s Family Relationship Inventory were used as a measuring tool. The data were analysed through Multivariate Analysis, Pearson Correlation method and T-test. The results indicated that, average and above average levels of parental acceptance
were found for adolescents who were belonged to high socioeconomic status. The results also indicated that, socioeconomic status had an impact on the mental health of adolescent.

A study by Sirin (2005) & White (1982) concluded that, there is a strong positive correlation between family socioeconomic status and the academic achievement of adolescent students. Another study showed that, students from low socio-economic communities develop the academic skills more slowly than those of higher socio economic status (Morgan et al., 2009). Schools in low socioeconomic areas are often under resourced which affect students academic achievement (Aikens & Barbarin, 2008). On the other hand, parents from low socioeconomic status may be unable to get resources such as books, computers and tutors (Orr, 2003).

The study by Hoff et al., (2002) has revealed that, socioeconomic status affects parenting practices of adolescents and this study has also shown that low socioeconomic status parenting is associated with higher levels of strict control, punishment of children (Simson et al., 1991) and lower levels of parental involvement in adolescents life. The study by Dodge, Pettit & Zelli (2000) stated that, parents of lower socioeconomic status provide low levels of cultural and educational resources which were not sufficient for the child to solve their problems in life. There are some other aspects of socioeconomic status i.e. occupational level and income level which also have an impact on children’s developmental processes (Beyera et al., 2003; Farrington, 1990; Rutter et al., 1998) and in child rearing styles.

Heimer (1997) found that, youth from lower socioeconomic status are more likely to violent delinquency than the higher socioeconomic status youth. Another study by Galgotra (2011), examined the relation between aggression of adolescent
and sex, self-concept and socioeconomic status. Adolescents were randomly selected as sample between the age of 15-17 year from Jammu district. A socioeconomic scale was used to assess the socioeconomic status. A self concept scale was used to assess adolescent self concept. Three way ANOVA was used to analyses the data. The findings of the study indicated that, aggression has a positive correlation with sex, socioeconomic status and self-concept. Further findings indicate that students of low socioeconomic status were significantly more aggressive than high socio-economic status adolescents.

2.1.1.4. Media influences on the adolescents life:

During the adolescent stage, outside influences are particularly capable of affecting youngsters’ behaviors, attitudes and thoughts. The factor that influences the teenager most—is the media. Media is a popular social communicating process. In today’s society, media are thoroughly integrated into our life including electronic gadgets such as TV, Videogames, Smart phone, Internet, IPod etc. All these new technologies have tremendous resources for learning and knowledge acquisition as compared to the past. Impact of media on children’s life depends on age and the content of media. Media can be used effectively as a teaching tool which gives direction in day-to-day life, work, entertainment, health care, education and in many other aspects of life. It has both positive and negative impacts on adolescents’ lives.

One of the positive effect of media is that, in present situation, with too much ease teens have learned to embrace technology which are contributed to increase the overall awareness, knowledge and information of teenagers about their surroundings .Mahmood (2000) stated that, radio, television play a vital and influential role in creating awareness regarding various aspects of life and personality. Electronic media
helps to reinforce and activate the latent attitude significantly in the formation of new attitude of the child (Gitten, 1998). That have an effect on attention, memory, executive functions, language and communication, visual spatial processing, reasoning and social emotional functioning. It also has a major influence on children’s social and cognitive development (Huston et al., 1992).

In urban busy schedule, people don’t have time to meet or call up their friends and relatives. Social media helps to make a bridge. Youngsters use social networking sites to search their friends online and communicate with them through chat, share photos, ideas etc. According to Winterer (2010), websites like Face book and twitter come with unbelievable techniques to communicate with family, friends and other social communities. Benson, Filippaiso and Morgan (2010) have studied the use of social networks in career development of students and also building the relationships with their employers. Backer (2010) investigated the role of new technologies like Face book and smart phones on student. He found that such applications create a sense of motivation and responsibility and thus enriches learning experiences.

There are some negative effects of mass media on teenagers. The study by Bickham et al., (2006) stated that, as children spend more time on watching TV, it increased the risk for social isolation from their parents, peers and many other relationships. This results in anxiety disorder, agoraphobia, antisocial that causes in appearing anxiety disorder, agoraphobia, antisocial behavior and gang involvement. On the other hand, adolescent want to buy what they see on TV and what their favorite celebrity advertise. Moreover, business advertising tasty fast food, high in calories & low nutrition, on TV entire children with their waves. Though children became their ready customers, they become prone to the harmful effects of the product (Dave, 2011). Thus, anorexia and obesity has been increased among of
adolescents. Kuritan et al., (2007) reported that, there was a strong association between TV watching and children’s obesity. Steller et al., (2004) also found evidence of a significant relation between electronic media and children’s obesity. However, many teenager girls are often obsessive with losing weight to look like a thin super model. Thus they get eating disorder that leads to severe health problems (Dave, 2011). Another study by Field et al., (1999) found that the majority of preadolescent and adolescent girls were unhappy with their body weight and shape. This was strongly related to dieting, weight loss of adolescent girls and reading fashion magazines to improve body shape. The study by Van den Berg et al., (2007) identified that, frequent reading of magazine articles about weight loss significantly associated with unhealthy weight control behavior in adolescent girls as compared to boys.

Another negative impact of media on adolescents life is media violence. This is disseminated through TV, movies, video games and tends to increase aggression on teenagers. Dave (2011) stated that, media violence exposure like murder, mystery TV shows and movies depicting torture and violence have negative impact on children’s behavior and can result in increased aggression. Violent video games tend to be more aggressive. Yama et al., (2001) explored that, fears, tensions, bad dreams, delinquent behaviors were observed when children saw violent movies on TV and played violent video games. According to Ray et al., (2006). In India, those children having violent exposure through media had poor academic performance in school and their psychosocial adjustment were detrimental. So, media violence has been positively related to aggressive behavior, ideas, anger and arousal (Ray & Jat, 2010). Sexual promiscuity of teenagers has also been found to be rooted in the media. In India, there are reports of messaging sexual contents through mobile among school going adolescents (Dave, 2011). Thus, electronic media exerts a high quality positive impact
on adolescent’s personality; attitude and behaviors, due to easy accessibility of media may hinder adolescents’ developmental process.

**Summary:** Adolescence is a time of life when the child is on the threshold of adulthood. It is a period of intense and rapid development and is characterized by numerous developmental tasks. It is a very critical period of life and it is defined as a time of “stress and storm”. It is a time of great changes in all domain of life. These drastic changes are associated with positive and negative outcomes of an individual. So, adolescences need to adapt these changes successfully. It is a time when an individual is torn by conflicting feelings. They are very much eager to be free from the authority, on the other hand, they wants that someone is always behind them to give right direction. As a result, various factors play a vital role in adolescents’ life. All these above mentioned factors seem to have a universal association with positive psychosocial outcomes, self-esteem, self-confidence, altruism, academic proficiency and mental well-being of the individual. An interesting illustration is provided by a pilot study conducted in Delhi by the Urivi Vikram Charitable Trust (2002), which has indicated the following:

…….73% of students felt that they could not talk to their parents about their personal problems.

…….31% of the students in the sample said that they did not understand much in the class.

…….28.5% reported that they did not know how to study effectively.

…….40% found it difficult to concentrate on their studies; and

…….37% expressed examination of fear and a fear of failure.
2.2 The Parenting

Socialization is a universal phenomenon. It is the process through which a person learns how to be a member of a social group. Attachment is a long term relationship between the members of the social groups. Passer & Smith (2007) define attachment as a strong emotional bond that develops between children and their parents. Another study by Akhtar (2011) conclude that, attachment style is a process of interacting within the closed relationship. The quality of an adolescent’s relationship with his or her parents is a key factor to healthy adolescent development. Karthik (2009) concluded that, parents influence their children’s lives in every aspect and make an impression for their future lives. Mother and father both have an important role in the upbringing of their child. According to Lung et al. (2004) noted that a parental bonding directly affect personality characteristics. According to Gadeyne et al., (2004), parenting is considered to be an important element of several aspects of children’s outcomes. It is one of the hardest tasks to describe the parents’ efforts as every parent would hope to succeed in parenting. Thus, parenting style is one of the variables which have been studied extensively for human development.

Parental acceptance is closely associated with positive outcomes of the child (Khaleque & Rohner, 2002). Wim et al., (2007) conducted research on “Dynamics of perceived parenting and identity formation in late adolescence”. Their findings clearly stated that parenting and identity formation are significantly associated and parents are important factors of socialization for the development of children specially for adolescents. On the contrary, unreasonable parental expectations and faulty parental behavior patterns adversely affect the child’s psychological wellbeing (Wang, 2002). Another study by Onghena (2004) considered parenting as an important determinant which affects the whole life of a child. It is one of the hardest tasks to describe the
parents’ efforts as every parent would hope to succeed in parenting. Parenting style is one of the variables which have been studied extensively for human development.

Parents assume special importance during the first years of life. They guide their young from complete infantile dependence into the beginning stages of autonomy. Their styles of care giving can have both immediate and lasting effects on children’s moral and social functioning in areas from pro-social development to peer play to academic achievement (Bornstein et al., 2007). As the infant reaches the stage of adolescence, he or she is fraught with many changes in personality and adjustments with the world in different ways. According to Darling & Steinberg (1993); Darling (1999), parenting style is a constellation of behaviors and attitudes towards the child and that work as taken together or separately to motivate the child and create an emotional atmosphere in which parental attitudes are expressed.

Parenting is the process of promoting and supporting the physical, emotional, social and intellectual development of a child from infancy to adulthood. Plenty of research has been conducted on different parenting styles and that helps to become aware of means to enrich the child’s social competence, academic performance, psychosocial development as well as control problem behavior (Hoeve et al., 2008). So, parenting as the style of child upbringing refers to a privilege or responsibility of mother and father, together or independently to prepare the child for society and culture (Veenes, 1973a). So, parents have unique attitude, behavior, belief, values and family culture and all these criteria vary from parent to parent (Bibi et al., 2013).

The study by Vig & Jaswal (2009) explored, parent-adolescent relationship from the perspective of the parents of adolescents. Middle and upper middle class nuclear families of Ludhiana, Punjab where parents had one son and daughter between 13-19 years of age were chosen as the sample and the sample size was 400.
A self constructed Socio-demographic questionnaire, a Socio-economic scale and a Parent child Relationship scale were used in this study. Findings of the study revealed that, there were good relationship between majority of parents and their sons and daughters. Parents exert high levels of acceptance, marital adjustment, realistic role expectations and severe moralism and discipline for their adolescents.

Another research study by Areepattamannil (2010), found the effects of parenting practices and parenting styles on children’s academic achievement and the effects of parental expectations and parental beliefs on parenting style. The sample were drawn from the 2002 Survey of Approaches to Educational planning from Canada. The sample size was 6626 and the participants were selected between age 5-18 years. After collecting the data IBM SPSS 19 was used for statistical analysis. The results indicated that, there were positive effects of socio economic status of family, parental encouragement, parental expectation and parental beliefs on school performance of the children. On the other hand parental monitoring had a negative effect on children’s school performance. Though parental expectations were not related to parenting style, parental beliefs were closely related to parental encouragement and parental monitoring that are the two important component of authoritative parenting.

2.2.1 Patterns of Parenting

The process of interaction between parent and child relationships is called parenting and it is a complex activity that includes many specific attitudes and behaviors of both mothers and fathers that work separately and collectively to influence child outcomes and generate an emotional bond in which the parent’s behaviors are expressed (Darling & Steinberg, 1993; Darling, 1999). Parenting can be defined on the basis of two components- responsiveness that means, parental
emotional characteristics and demandingness, that means set of parental guidelines and disciplines for the child (Fletcher et al., 2008). Both parenting responsive and demanding has been linked to secure attachment in children (Karavasilis, Doyle & Markiewicz, 2003). In terms of the interaction between these two dimensions, Baumrind (1971) classify parenting styles are of four types: Authoritative, Authoritarian, Permissive and Neglectful parenting.

2.2.1.1 Authoritative Parenting:

This type of parents maintains equilibrium between the levels of responsiveness and demandingness. They control their children according to their age related manner, they make logical demands, create an affectionate and loving atmosphere where children can express their feelings, opinions, offer their points of view and participate in decision making process within the family (Berg et al., 2011). Baumrind (1967) concluded that, authoritative parents are sensitive, they do not use harsh and punitive discipline. Authoritative parenting is defined as the best and most appropriate style for developing competent and confident children in all aspects of life. In a study by Castrucci & Gerlach (2006), this parenting is revealed to be the optimal style.

Bronte-Tinkew et al., (2006) and Steinberg (2001) observed that, the combination of warmth, involvement, responsiveness and strict principles and consistency in setting rules and limits is called authoritative parenting. This type of parenting is found to be beneficial for all dimensions of adolescent development. Another study by Gleitman et al., (2007) found that, this type parents set discipline and rules of conduct for their child and assign career oriented hard jobs and expect mature behavior from their children. According to Talib (2011) both the mother and father’s authoritative style of child rearing has positive effect on children’s behavior.
and school achievement. Another study by Hasting et al., (2000) stated that, authoritative parenting could support pro-social behavior by encouraging children to be more caring and considerate. Children are more prosocial when their mother and father are more authoritative than authoritarian, when parents avoid punitive and strict discipline, when they use logical explanation, and when they are sensitive to their child’s needs. In a study of the contributions of parenting styles to adolescents’ prosocial development, youths perceived that the extent to which they and their parents valued being kind, caring, and fair corresponded more closely with their perceptions of parents as being more authoritative (Pratt, Hunsberger, Pancer, & Alisat, 2003). Rossman & Rea (2005) explored that, this style of parenting helps the child to better adapt in society and get higher learning achievement. On the other hand this type of parenting helps the child to decrease some externalizing problem behavior such as aggression. Another study by Hickman & Crossland (2005) stated that, authoritative parenting and academic performance were positively related to students’ adjustment in college.

2.2.1.2. Authoritarian Parenting:

The parents are highly demanding but less responsive to their children. According to Baumrind (1966), these parents do not allow the child to express their opinions and needs. These parents pretend that they know the ‘best’ for their children. They attempt to mold and control the behavior and attitudes of their children according to a set of standard. They expect the rules that they impose to be followed without any questions or explanation. Parents have little interaction with their children and expect them to accept parents’ high expectation which is sometimes beyond the child’s capacity. Power assertive techniques are used by the parents to control them. This can restrain their self expression, self confidence and most of all, their
independence (Zupancic et al., 2004). A study by Berg (2011) found that, authoritarian parents show loving attitude in respect to their success and not as a result of nurturing. Another study (Hoeve et al., 2008; Hoeve et al., 2009) also showed that, authoritarian parents show high levels of control, supervision, overprotection, belief in harsh punishment and moderate levels of love and support.

The study by Daniels (2009) found that, children are more likely to be unhappy, withdrawn, inhibited, display poor communication skills and be less socially adept when their parents use authoritarian style. Schaffer et al., (2009) showed that, authoritarian parenting may lead to higher levels of anti-social behavior and can have a negative effect on children’s lives. Also, excessive authority as manifested by the authoritarian style was found to be negatively correlated with academic achievement of the child (Baumrind 1991; Dornbusch (1987).

A study Konnie & Alfred (2013) examined the influence of parenting styles on the social development of children. A descriptive survey was designed to execute the research by a structured interview schedule and a questionnaire. The sample comprised of 240 girls and 240 boys and 16 teachers from the public and private schools of Ahafo region of Ghana. The data was analyzed by using Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient through SPSS 16. The study revealed that parenting style has direct influence on children’s social development. This study also stated that, parents used authoritative style to foster prosocial behavior in children lives. In contrast, the authoritarian style of parenting increased antisocial behavior. Thus, parents should adopt authoritative style to ensure prosocial behavior and to make the child to be socially competent.
2.2.1.3 Permissive Parenting

Permissive parents are responsive but exert low demands on their children. Baumrind (1971, 1989) found that parents exercise minimal control and authority, and often fail to impose rules and standards and cannot define the limits of acceptable behavior of the child. Another study by Zupancic et al. (2004) also found that, this parenting used nurturance and acceptance but avoided imparting controls and demands to the children. The study by Schaffer, Clark & Jeglic (2009) found that, permissive parents provide their child high levels of independence without interfering with the child’s daily activities, thus resulting in low levels of parental guidance. Another study by Rossman & Rea (2005) also stated that, this style of parenting provided high levels of freedom. Children who are exposed to this type of parenting can not control their behavior unless physical punishment is imposed. So parents of children with antisocial behavior are likely to be less positive, more permissive and inconsistent and use more violent and critical discipline (Reid, Webster-Stratton & Baydar, 2004).

2.2.1.4 Neglectful Parenting

This style of parenting exhibits low levels of responsiveness as well as low levels of demandingness. These parents are often disengaging from parental responsibilities. They do not supervise their children’s behavior and do not monitor their actions (Maccoby & Martin, 1983). Adolescents who have neglectful parents showed low levels of psychosocial adjustment, social competence and academic achievement (Lamborn et al., 1991). This type of parents provide inadequate punishment skill and very low level of controlling attitude (Hoeve et al., 2008). A
study by Steinberg et al., (2006) concluded that, neglected children show less maturity and are more likely to be motivated by peers.

Both these last two styles that are permissive and neglectful parenting provide lack of parental control, supervision and support and have the strongest association with anti-social behavior (Schaffer et al., 2009). Schahher’s study also stated that, both these styles have a long lasting negative effect on the growth and development of adolescents and can accelerate in the formation of anti social behavior.

These four parenting styles denote two approaches. One stresses on a constellation of positive behaviors like warmth, responsiveness, supportiveness, influence, consistency. The other approach stresses a constellation of negative behaviors like disapproval, hostility, punitiveness, inconsistency and harshness (Collins et al., 2000) Faulty parent-adolescent relationship leads to adolescents’ maladjustment (Erickson, 1963) and each of healthy relationship between parent-adolescent and consequent growth of self-esteem, self-confidence (Holfman, 1960).

According to Bharadwaj et al., (1998), parental emotional expressiveness is a combination of emotions, knowledge of displaying rules and standard, motivation and the ability to control one’s emotion. This has been the basis for categorizing eight patterns of parenting viz, Rejection-Acceptance, Carelessness-Protection, Neglect-Indulgence, Utopean Expectation-Realism, Lenient Standard-Moralism, Freedom-Discipline, Faulty Role Expectation-Realistic Role Expectation, Marital Conflict-Marital Adjustment.(136)

**Summary:** From the above discussion, it is essential to note that, among the four parenting styles authoritative style of parenting is so balanced. Authoritative parents
direct the children’s activities in a very rational and logical way. They maintain verbal
give and take policy (Baumrind, 1968). They always listen to children’s point of view
and then provide direction and thus make healthiest relationship between teenagers
and their parents. Authoritative parenting would have a higher tendency to form more
secure attachment between parents and their adolescents as compare to other styles of
parenting. So, authoritative parenting style is revealed as an optimal style. It is
sensitive as well as democratic by which they positively influence in the all domain
of children and adolescents life, that means this style helps to enrich the all round
development of personality.

2.3 Altruism and Pro-social Behavior

Prosocial behavior is an important aspect of normal social and psychological
development. It has been found in the study of Berk (2000) that pro-social behavior,
such as, sympathy, sharing, and helping is vital for healthy and effective relationships
throughout life. Prosocial behavior as the behavior that benefits society. The
prosocial personality is said to include moral reasoning, empathic concern, the ability
to take the perspective of others, and agreeableness (Sprecher and Fehr, 2005).
Prosocial behaviors have been defined as actions primarily intended to benefit others
(Eisenberg, Fabes, & Spinrad, 2006). According to Hastings, Rubin & DeRose
(2005), prosocial behavior is sympathetic, helpful and considerate behavior towards
other people with the intension of actively establishing and maintaining positive
relationships among members of a social group. Pro-social activities are planned
action that helps other without expecting anything in return (Afolabi, 2013). So, pro-
social behavior is an act that benefits other people like sharing with someone,
comforting or rescuing distressed person, cooperating with other, helping someone to
achieve something, making other feels good by complimenting or appreciating him or her.

The review of many studies suggests that the motivations of both prosocial behavior and altruism have much in common. Both terms encompass the actions that aim to benefit another. Ross et al. (1992) note that prosocial behavior and altruism are different. Batson & Colleague (1991) have shown that, prosocial behavior can be egoistic or altruistic. Miller et al., (1991) stated that altruistic behavior is a subordinate type of prosocial behavior. Millon (2003) termed altruism as an act is unilaterally directed for the benefit of others. So, altruism is the unselfish concern of an individual for the welfare of another (Carlson, Martin & Buskist, 2004). People who perform prosocial behavior reciprocally pursue to support, to aid, or sometimes to love or like each other (Twenge et al., 2007). Contrarily, altruism is the essence of a prosocial personality. In other words, the true altruism is more out of a concern for others than for positive outcomes children may gather as a result of helping, sharing with or comforting others. According to Amartya Sen (1987, p.43), an individual may feel happier and better and better off when he has achieved what he desires and do for his families, community or some other causes other than himself. “Sociologists have long been concerned with how to build the good society” (“Altruism, Morality and Social Solidarity,”n.d. Mission Statement).

One of the core societal values that parents try to teach their children early on is altruism (Eisenberg, 1983). Another study by George palmer (2009) found that, Altruism is one of the most fundamental familiar and mysterious of all the domain of life. Paddock (2007) defined altruistic behavior as it enumerated from how we observe the world rather than how we act in it. Altruism is perceived more than just as prosocial behavior, it emphasizes as a human and social value, along its relational and
psychological features. Improvement in relationship is reported as the most prominent benefit of being altruistic (Soosai-Nathan, Negri, & Fane, 2013).

According to Vedantam (2007), altruism is a fundamental and foundational to the brain and pleasurable rather it suppresses or controls basic, selfish urges. Clavien & Chapuisat (2012) have argued that, the term altruism covers variables, concepts and processes across various disciplines. There are four distinct but related concept of altruism: (i) Psychological altruism, the genuine motivation to improve others’ interests and welfare (ii) Reproductive altruism, which involves increasing others chances of survival and reproduction at the actors expense, (iii) Behavioral altruism, which involves bearing some cost in the interest of others; and (iv) Preference altruism, which is a preference for others’ interests.

Altruistic behavior is an intentional and voluntary action that benefit others being without obtaining any potential self interest and self benefit (Eisenberg, 1983). It is motivated by some internal or external reward. By contrast, pro-social behavior is an act that benefits another whether the motive is selfish or altruistic (Eisenberg, 1983). Hopkins & Powers (2009) inferred that, altruism is a motivation with an ultimate goal of enhancing the welfare of another. According to Robinson & Curry (2005) defined altruism as the manifestation of caring, selfless and non-contingent upon reward, and it is truly selflessness with no expectation in any kind of advantage. So, most of the parents would foster the type of pro-social behavior that is purely altruistic in their children. The study by Peterson & Gelfand (1984) concluded that by asking college students and 1st, 4th and 6th graders to rate the altruistic motivation of different children who had helped others, out of empathy, to obtain rewards, to win praise, to repay a favor and to avoid criticism.
Another key ingredient for fostering altruistic behavior is empathy (Piliavin & Charn, 1990; Smith, 2005; Toi & Batson, 1982). Empathy, the ability to feel another’s emotions as being like one’s own, provides people with the basis to respond to another person’s emotional behavior (Eisenberg, 1983). Empathy can be viewed as an extension of self-other understanding in which a person recognizes the other as a separate being and reacts vicariously to the other’s emotions (Mehrabian & Norman, 1972). The current research suggests that the empathy-helping link may depend on the relationship context in which a helping opportunity is considered. That helping in close personal relationships (e.g., kinship relationships) could be motivated by empathic concern and a true desire to enhance the welfare of another person. The study by Eisenberg & Fabes (1998) inferred that, aggression, delinquency and other socially inappropriate behavior were closely associated with lower levels of empathy. If a child wants to dominate others, he or she is less likely to show pro-social behavior.

Many researches have shown that pro-social behavior is highly associated with satisfaction with life than those who are depressed in life (Hunter & Lin, 1981). In the study by Martin & Huebner (2007) shown that, there is a highly linked between prosocial interaction and greater life satisfaction. Other findings of the study by Gedauer, Riketta, Broemer & Maio (2007), emerged that, pleasure based prosocial motivation was linked to life satisfaction than pressure based prosocial motivation. The reason behind that, whether an individual has genuine interest in prosocial behavior and from which he or she derives pleasure from prosocial activity. This intrinsic motivation is necessary for a greater level of well being.

Another aspect that clearly enhances the altruistic nature of both children and adolescents is good mood. A person who is feeling good after achieving a goal is
more inclined to charity or helping other than those whose achievement was average or below average (Isen, 1970; Shaffer, 1986). This may indicate that altruism may not stem from aggressive attitudes. In the study by Cunningham et al. (1990) emerged that, positive moods provide altruism because, it directs the attention outward to others than inward on personal concern.

### 2.3.1 Theories of Altruism and Prosocial Development

There are several theories on the issue that whether altruism is an innate capacity or it is a learned behavior.

#### 2.3.1.1 Biological theory

Campbell (1965) argued that altruism is instinctive. Human are more likely to receive protection from natural enemies and to satisfy their basic needs when they live together as cooperative social group. These cooperative, altruistic individuals would be most likely to survive and to pass along altruistic genes to their ancestors. Some other sociologists like, Cunningham, (1986); Rushton, (1989) arguing on Campbell’s theory, they stated that, altruism provides survival of human’s own genes. Every individual are more likely to share, to cooperate, to help their close relatives who are from their own genes than other people who are unrelated. This process is known as ‘Kin Selection’.

Rushton (1989) proposed genetic similarity theory to extend the idea of kin selection to human beings who are also altruistic to non-kin such as to spouses and friends. In a twin study Rushton and Bons (2005) found the amount of genetic similarity between spouses and friends. They concluded that people are genetically inclined to choose as social partners those who resemble themselves. Another study was found to detect the physiological mechanisms for genetic influences on prosocial
behavior. In the study by Harris, Rushton, Hampson, & Jackson,(1996) found that among both male and female university students, testosterone was negatively related to prosocial behaviors and positively related to aggression.

2.3.1.2 Psycho-analytical theory

In Freud's psychoanalytic theory (1933/1968), children are born with innate, irrational sexual and aggressive impulses directed toward self-gratification that is Id. They develop superego to resolve the conflict between their own hostile and sexual impulses and their fears of parental hostility or the loss of parental love. When children develop superego, they may foster prosocial behavior to avoid the guilt by not doing so or based on the values consisted with prosocial behavior. Prosocial actions often are defense mechanisms used by the ego to deal with the irrational demands of the superego. Freud (1930) asserted,

"Individual development seems to us a product of the interplay of two trends, the striving for happiness, generally called 'egoistic,' and the impulse toward merging with others in the community, which we call 'altruistic'" (1930, p. 134)

2.3.1.3 Social-Learning Theory

Social learning approach is that the children repeat behaviors that are reinforced and avoid repeating responses that punishing. On a conceptual level several reinforcement theories have taken the position that all prosocial acts are prompted by some form of rewards or self-gain. This perspective is based on the study which are associated with the role of reinforcement and punishment in promoting prosocial behavior (e.g., Hartmann et al., 1976) and in the development of empathy through
conditioning (Aronfreed, 1970). Social learning theorists allowed internal cognitive processes to play a greater role. People can learn the consequences of a behavior through observation and verbal behavior. Imitation is viewed as a critical process in the socialization of moral behavior and standards (Bandura, 1986). According to Bandura (2002), moral and prosocial functioning are self-reactive responses and self-regulatory processes rather than by abstract reasoning (Bandura, 2002). On the other hand it was found that, positive affect of self-efficacy was related to perceptions of empathic efficacy, which in turn were related to prosocial behavior (Bandura, Caprara, Barbaranelli, Gerbino, & Pastorelli, 2003).

2.3.1.4. Socio-Cognitive Developmental Theory

Cognitive-developmental theories and social information-processing theorists assume that prosocial responses such as cooperating, sharing, comfort, volunteering to help others should become increasingly apparent during childhood (Chapman et al., 1987; Eisenberg, Lennon, & Roth, 1983; Kohlberg, 1969). As children grow up intellectually, they will acquire important cognitive skills that will affect both their reasoning about prosocial issues and their motivation to act in the interest of others. Social cognitive approaches focus on the reasoning which are underlie prosocial behavior. Prosocial action involves several fundamental cognitive process including perception, reasoning, problem solving and decision making (Eisenberg, 1989). Eisenberg stated that, socio cognitive development has an important role in the development of prosocial moral reasoning, she does not view all stages of prosocial reasoning as universal. Rather, environmental and emotional factors are believed to play a considerable role in the development of prosocial moral reasoning. Thus, Eisenberg's conception of moral reasoning differs considerably from the traditional cognitive developmental perspective.
2.3.2 Relation between Aggression and Altruism of Adolescents

Prosocial and altruism tendencies appear from childhood to adolescence. According to Fabes, Carlo, Kupanoff & Liable, (1999) concluded that, young adolescents at 13-15 years and old adolescents at 16-18 years were highly associated with pro-social behavior than elementary school students. People sometimes experience a distressing situation in which they incite both anger to the aggressor and sympathy to the victim. That means, adolescents act both aggressively and altruistically, and sometimes can engage in both behaviors simultaneously (Feshbach and Feshbach, 1986; Zahn-Waxler et al., (1986). Batson and Powell (2003) stated that, the word ‘pro-social’ is used as an antonym for anti-social. According to Penner et al., (2005), pro-social behavior would need to benefit many others. There is considerable evidence that, prosocial behavior is selflessly motivated social behaviors (e.g., Batson et al., 2002; Eisenberg, 2003); on the other hand, aggression is conceptualized as a selfishly motivated social behavior. Several researches (Krueger, Hicks & McGue, 2001) indicate that pro social behavior and anti social behavior seem to be at opposite ends of the same continuum. If so the implication is that an aggressive person is not likely to show altruistic behavior and an altruistic person is not likely to show aggressive behavior.

The study on antisocial and prosocial behaviors over the past three decades has tended to run parallel courses. Prosocial behavior was studied mainly by social-developmental psychologists, whereas criminologists and developmental psychopathologists focused on antisocial behavior (Krueger, Hicks, & McGue, 2001). Prosocial and antisocial behaviors have been conceived both as opposite ends of a single continuum and as independent characteristics of the individual (e.g., Eisenberg & Fabes, 1998; Eron & Huesmann, 1984; Feshbach & Feshbach, 1986;
Graziano & Eisenberg, 1997; Hay, 1994; Pulkkinen, 1984; Shiner, 1998; Shiner & Caspi, 2003; Tremblay, 1991). In recent research studies indicate that, aggressive and pro-social behaviors are independent individual characteristics, residing in the same individual. Krueger et al. (2001) show in their study of adult twins that altruism, a specific form of pro-social behavior, and antisocial behavior did not correlate with each other, had different personality correlates, and different heritability estimates. The existing literatures indicated that, prosocial and aggressive behavior can co-exist and have little or direct relation with each other and they are not resided at two sides of the same coin. Another analysis by Haapasalo et al., (2000); Pulkkinen and Trembly, (1992), stated that, some children with high levels of prosocial behavior coexist with aggressiveness. Antisocial behavior correlated with negative emotionality and a lack of constraint, whereas prosocial behavior was related to positive emotionality.

It has been said that, pro-social behavior and aggression might be interrelated in respect to theoretical empirical linked to empathy and sympathy (Feshbach and Feshbach, 1986; Hill, 2004; Miller and Eisenberg, 1988; Strayer and Roberts, 2004). According to Bandura et al., (2001) found that, increased feelings of sorrow for another or sympathy distract the individual from engaging in aggressive behavior. Several researches have been concluded that, during the adolescent’s stage, pro-social behaviors have been used to prevent in the development of aggression or anti-social behavior (Eron & Huesmann, 1984; Kuczynski & Kochanska, 1995; Haapasalo et al., 2000; Hastings et al., 2000; Trembly et al., 1992; Vitaro et al., 1990). Another evidence is to suggested that, prosocial behaviors are used to protect the children against antisocial development and decrease the problematic, aggressive and destructive behaviors (Feshbach, 1983; Flannery et al., 2003; Hastings et al., 2000).
Adolescents who are very much involved in altruistic activities are prone to sympathy, higher levels of moral reasoning, ascribe social responsibility and exhibit less aggression toward others (Eisenberg et al., 2006). It was also found that, secure adolescents, compared to insecure ones, are considered more prosocial, are perceived as less aggressive, and are less victimized (Dykas, Ziv, & Cassidy, 2008).

### 2.3.3 Factors that Influence Altruism/Pro-Social Behavior of Adolescents

#### 2.3.3.1. Peer Group

The peer group is an important societal factor in adolescent’s life (Larson & Richards, 1991). Adolescents’ peer relationships and friendships appear to be influential in the development of prosocial motivations and behaviors. Peer interactions involve the association with equals and, frequently, cooperation, reciprocity, and mutuality, peer interaction may provide an optimal atmosphere for the acquisition of concepts and behaviors reflecting justice, kindness, and concern for another's welfare (Youniss, 1980). In the study by Wentzel, Barry, & Caldwell, (2004) invented that, having at least one reciprocated friendship has been related to higher levels of prosocial behavior. Peer is an important role in the development of pro-social behavior and that has been associated with self-esteem (Simmons & Blyth, 1987) and moral development (Furman & Masters, 1980; Schonert-Reichi, 1991). Friendly peer-adolescent interactions are effective for adolescent morality (Bukowski & Sippola, 1996). In the study Clark & Ladd(2000); Gest, Graham-Bermann & Hartup (2001) concluded that, more prosocial children and youth are more popular and well liked and are more likely to have close friendship may positively influence adolescents prosocial development. According to Dekovic & Janseens (1992) stated that, prosocial activity may interact in between parental socialization and children’s
popularity and peer acceptance. So, peer relationship with older adolescents serves as an influential factor which can foster in the development of prosocial and altruistic behavior. On the other hand, the study by Haselager, Cillessen, Van-Lieshout, Riksen-Walraven & Hartup, (2002) enumerated that, peer rejected boys who showed declining aggression also showed increasing prosocial behavior and when they become altruistic in nature were less rejected by peers and more likely to be friends and more helpful. So, increases pro-social behavior may have supported by peers.

2.3.3.2 Media

Pro-social indicates such behaviors whose intention is to help others. The effect of media on children’s pro-social behavior was studies through TV (Friedrich & Stein, 1973; Ostrove, Gentile & Crick, 2006). According to Gentile et al., (2009) documented an extensive relationship between prosocial video games and prosocial behaviors. They reported that there is a significant positive effect of prosocial video games on adolescent’s prosocial behavior. Some studies have enumerated that; prosocial video games can increase cooperation and helping (Gentile et al., 2009; Greitemeyer & Osswald, 2009). In the study by Gentile et al., (2009); Mares & Woodward, (2005); Wilson (2008) documented the effects of prosocial media exposure on increasing prosocial behavior, positive social interactions and tolerance for others. On the other hand, Anderson et al., (2010) conducted a study to explore the effects of violent video games on aggressive behavior, aggressive affect, empathy and prosocial behavior. The findings suggested that, exposure to violent video games is a causal factor for increased aggressive behavior and decreased empathy and prosocial behavior.
2.3.3.3 Adult Model

Social learning theorists emerged that, adults who encouraged altruism and who practiced what they preach will affect children. The adult model of altruism may induce the child to perform as similar act of kindness. Many studies consistently indicate that, regular exposure to the model’s altruistic exhortations provides the child to internalize principles that should contribute to the development of an altruistic orientation. In the study by Midlarsky & Bryan (1972) concluded that, a model who donated valuable things to a charity increased children’s willingness to donate something to some other. So, altruistic models may foster the development of prosocial habits and altruistic values.

2.3.3.4 Socio Economic Status

Children from adverse family background by less educated parents, lower incomes or job status, less resourceful families, are less prosocial than children from more privileged homes (Haapasalo, Trembly, Boulerice & Vitaron, 2000; Lichter, Shanahan, & Gardner, 2002). According to Bekkers (2006), socio-economic status has significantly greater influence on prosocial development. Income and educational levels are the indicators of human capital and as well as, important predictors of prosocial behaviors (Bekkers, 2006; Jones & Posnet, 1991). According to Van Ootegem (1993), higher educated people and people with higher income donate most. In the study by Mortelmans et al., (2008) enumerated that, higher the income and education the more frequent charity donations will be made on a structured way. Parents, both mothers and fathers from lower socio-economic status have found to use more strongly punitive, power assertive techniques and less responsive than parents from higher socioeconomic status. Beneson, Pascoe and Radmore (2007) investigated
the relationship between altruism and socioeconomic status in 4, 6 and 9 years old children, during their play time. This study has been shown that, the older children from higher socioeconomic family show more altruistic behaviors than younger and more disadvantaged counterparts (Beneson., 2007).

2.3.4 Patterns of Parenting Influence the Altruism of Adolescents

Parenting styles are the first socializing system that provide adolescents’ empathy and pro-social behavior. Effects of parental behavior found resulting pro-social and altruistic nature in adolescents life. Parents play an important role in promoting and fostering prosocial behavior in their adolescents (Bandura, 1986; Hoffman, 2000; Staub, 1979). According to Berk (2000), parenting styles are significantly influence the amount of pro-social behavior that a child shows. Pro-social behaviors have been defined as actions primarily intended to benefit others (Eisenberg, Fabes & Spinard, 2006). Sharing, caring, donating, helping and cooperating are the criteria of altruistic nature and most of the parents desire their child to exhibit such volunteering activities. Parents are always trying to motivate their child to be successful and accepted by society. Parental behavior and attitude are related to child’s behavior. It has been found in the study by Hastings et al. (2007), parenting styles are significantly influence the prosocial behavior of children and adolescents.

In the study by Carlo et al., (2007) indicated the relation between parenting styles, parental practices, sympathy and prosocial behaviors in adolescents. The participants were 233 adolescents from public high schools of the United States. The authors found evidence that parenting practices were associated with adolescents’ prosocial behavior. Another study by Carlo, Mestre, Samper, Tur, & Armenta (2010),
assert that parents are important in fostering pro-social behaviors in adolescents, but longitudinal investigations on this topic are limited. Participants consisted of 372 boys and 358 girls with a mean age of 10.84 years (SD = 1.57) at middle class community in Spain. Across three successive years, participants completed measures of fathers’ and mothers’ warmth and strict control, sympathy, pro-social moral reasoning, and self- and peer-reported pro-social behaviors. Results showed that parental warmth, sympathy, and pro-social moral reasoning were predictive of pro-social behaviors.

Many researchers have suggested that, parent-child discussion about moral issues highly associated with the development of prosocial behavior. Parents who engage in the conversation about moral values with their children are more likely to have children who internalize their parents’ moral values and standards (Laible, 2004; see Thompson, 2006). This conversation may broaden children’s’ perspectives on social, moral issues as well as that discussion makes an intimate relationship between parent and adolescents which should foster the empathy, sympathy and interpersonal prosocial behaviors (Dunn, Cutting & Demetriou, 2000). There is evidence for the direct association between parenting practices and sympathy and prosocial behaviors (Carlo, Hausmann, Christiansen & Randall, 2003; Eisenberg, Zhou & Koller, 2001).

There is a strong significant association between responsiveness, supportive and demanding, controlling nature of parents and adolescents pro-social behavior (Barber, Stolz & Olsen, 2005; Baumrind, 1991; Maccoby & Martin, 1983). Supportive parenting is characterized by high levels of parental warmth, positive affect and child centered orientation (Biringen & Robinson, 1991). In the correlational study by Clark & Ladd, (2000); Liable et al.,(2004) suggested that, there is a linked between parental warmth or affection with children’s prosocial characteristics. This type of parenting tend to use positive discipline technique like
induction that have an impact of child’s behavior on other people (Hoffman, 2000). Supportive parenting should be related positively to sympathy and prosocial moral reasoning, whereas parental control (especially overtly strict control) should be related negatively or not significantly to such traits (Carlo, 2006; Eisenberg et al., 2006; see Pratt, Skoe, & Arnold, 2004). Supportive parenting has been positively associated with social competence and pro-social behavior (DeGuzman & Carlo, 2004; Carlo, 2006). Children are more prosocial when they have formed more secure attachment relationships with their parents; when parents avoid punitive and strict discipline; when they use reasoning and provide explanations; when they are sensitive to their children’s needs and when they support their children’s experience and regulation of emotions (Hastings et al., 2000). Youths’ perceptions of their parents’ close and warm involvement in their lives has predicted higher levels of engaging in voluntary work in early adulthood (Zaff et al., 2003). So pro-social behavior is a positive action that are used to benefit others (Carlo & Randall, 2002).

Strict parenting is characterized by high parental expectations for children and have repercussions when children do not meet the required expectation (Maccoby & Martin, 1983). Punishment has been found to be negatively correlated with children’s prosocial characteristics (Krevans & Gibbs, 1996; Liable, Carlo, Torquati, & Ontai, 2004; Robberts, 1999). Punitive parenting is thought to negatively impact pro-social behavior of adolescents. Punitive parents use harsh, physical punishment and high levels of control have been negatively linked to pro-social behavior (Knafo & Plomin, 2006). Some researchers have indicated that, there was a negative correlation between strict, punitive techniques of discipline that are used by parents and adolescents altruistic or pro-social behavior (Asbury, Dunn, Pike & Plomin, 2003; Bar-Tal, Nadler & Blechman, 1980; Deater-Dackard, Dunn et al., 2001; Olugokinski & Firestone,
1974, Krevans & Gibbs, 1996), empathy (Janssens & Garris, 1992; Krevans & Gibbs, 1996) and sympathy (Spinrad et al., 1999). So, all these evidence supports that angry, punitive parenting decreases the children’s prosocial behaviors. Less prosocial children might exhibit more undesirable behaviors that elicit more punishment from parents; they may elicit fewer feelings of warmth and close attachment from parents.

On the other hand, parental supervision, monitoring etc are important for providing altruism in the adolescents’ life. In the study by Zaff, Moore, Papillo, & Williams (2003) stated the adolescents reporting that, their parents more closely supervised their actions subsequently were more likely to engage in volunteer community work. Strictness, control and parental monitoring has been positively linked to pro-social behavior (Kerr, Beck, Shattuck, Katar & Uriburu, 2003; Carlo, Knight, McGinlry, Zamboango & Jarvis, 2010).

Authoritative parenting is typically thought to be the best parenting style, because they provide both support and strictness and this style is positively associated with positive social behavior in children and adolescents (Carlo, McGinley, Hayes, Batenhosst & Wilkinson, 2007; Hoffman, 2000; See Eisenberg & Murphy, 1995). Authoritative parenting provides pro-social behavior that children may emulate, encouraging children to be more caring and make children more receptive, foster altruistic behavior for others (Hastings et al., 2000). In the study by Pratt, Hunsberger, Pancer & Alisat (2003) analyzed the contribution of parenting styles to adolescent’s prosocial development when adolescents perceived their parents are more authoritative. Authoritarian parents may undermine children’s pro-social behavior (Hastings, 2000). Authoritarian parenting is a lack of concern for the children’s needs, using hostility, parental rejection and that may hinder in fostering pro-social and altruism in adolescents life. Punitive, authoritarian parenting styles has been unrelated
for mothers (Iannotti, Cummings, Pierrehumbert, Milano and Zahn-Waxler, 1992; Russell et al., 2003); and negatively related for fathers (Dekovic & Janssens, 1992; Hastings et al., 2000; Russell et al., 2003) to children’s pro-social behavior and sympathy and this negative relation with sympathy may increase with age (Hastings et al., 2000).

**Summary**: The socialization of prosocial and altruistic behavior has began to generate consistent evidence of the contribution made by parents, peers, media and socio-economic status to the development of adolescents’ concern for the well-being of others. Children are more prosocial when they come from economically stable home and healthy, secure home environment; when they have close and good peer relationship; when they have good quality child care facilities and when they see healthy media exposure. It has been found that, altruistic behavior can be effectively supported and can be well nurtured. There was some concurrent evidence that parental warmth, sympathy and prosocial moral reasoning are unique predictors of adolescents’ altruistic behaviors. Children are more prosocial when they have formed more secure attachment relationship with their parents; when parenting style is more authoritative than authoritarian; when parents avoid strict and punitive discipline; when they provide logical explanation and use reasoning. Many research findings suggested that, early emerging of altruism protect children against antisocial development and that helps to decrease aggression and destructive behaviors.

### 2.4 Anger and Aggression

Anger and aggression are universal phenomenon in all cultures. It is increasingly an important and common behavioral problem that is causing very detrimental effect in today’s adolescents’ life. It is an unbalanced mental health.
Anger and aggression such as threats and violence have some direct and indirect effects which are appears in the form of learning difficulties and socio-psychological adjustment problems.

Anger is an emotional state often manifest when needs and desires of an individual are blocked. It is defined as a person’s response to a threat against an individual or group (Lazarus, 1991). According to Kendall (2000), anger is a strong emotional response which is determined by excitement and modifications of central nervous system. Anger is an extremely powerful emotion that can change the life of adolescence through massive instances of anger or the smaller inconveniences and conflicts of day to day life. So, anger is a defensive reaction. It appears in the event of failure, being ignored and being attacked by anyone.

According to Spielberger (as cited in Puskar, Ren & Bernardo, 2008) there are two aspects of anger: State anger and Trait anger. State anger is an emotional response to a provoking incident, while trait anger tends to occur in situation where most people would not respond in the same manner. Anger in adolescents life have many problems. Anger makes the youth more aggressive and rebellious. According to Novaco (as cited in Taylor, Novaco, Gillmer & Thorne, 2002) though anger does not always lead to aggressiveness in adolescents life, it is a precursor to aggression. Individuals express anger for different reasons. Most people think that aggression is the physical expression of anger.

Aggression means emotional, physical or psychological harm to others such as hitting, kicking, punching, unpleasant rumors about someone’s actions or characters. It is a behavioral act that results in harming or hurting others (Baron & Richardson, 1994). It is a very purposive act that inflicts pain and it aims at
harming or injuring other person and owns self also. According to Shaffer (2002), aggression is a behavior that is designed to harm or injure a living being. Another study by Bushman & Anderson (2001); Baron & Richardson (1994); Berkowitz (1993) and Geen (2001) defined that, human aggression is any behavior directed towards another individual that is carried out with the immediate intent to cause harm and the target is motivated to avoid the behavior. So, aggression is a behavior characterized by verbal or physical attack. Yet it may be appropriate and self-protective or destructive and violent (Perry, 2007). The study by Dugan (2004) divided aggression into three ways. Those are, aggression is considered as an instinct; aggression is a stimulus and lastly, it is considered as a learned behavior. On the other hand, Remirez et al. (2003) argue that hostility is an aggressive attitude that exerts aggressive behavior of an adolescent while aggression attributed to an intentional harm. According to Braine (1995), aggressive behavior is an intentional act and potential harm that committed by an individual. So, from all the definition it is enumerated that, aggression is an act which has an intent to harm another person without considering the other person’s desires.

On the other hand, the term “aggression” and “violence” have often been used interchangeably (Kingsbury, Lambert & Hendrickse, 1997). Kingbury et al., (1997) stated that, the term aggression is used more in psychological perspective, whereas the term violence is used more in psychiatric perspective. Though the terms have been used interchangeably, Meloy (1988, 2006) argued that, the distinction between aggression and violence is important. He stated that, violence is a severe form of aggression, but not all aggression is so violent.
2.4.1 Different types of Aggression

By different forms of aggression, it means in what way aggression act is expressed. There are different forms of aggression:

2.4.1.1. Hostile Aggression

It is done to hurt someone physically or psychologically (Buss & Perry, 1992). The children who use hostile aggression experience satisfaction from seeing others pain that means, it is accompanied by strong negative emotional state. Children use hostile aggression to make themselves feel more powerful or when they think someone is trying to sabotage what they are doing. Geen (2001) stated that, anger is most thought of as a factor that instigates the hostile aggression. Hostile aggression acts are unpredictable, unprovoked and illogical. However, Berkowtiz (1993a, 1993c, 1999); Berkowitz & Heimer (1989) argued, to arouse anger or hostile aggression, in ‘unjustified’ or ‘deliberate’ manner, in that case cognitive appraisal are not necessary.

2.4.1.2 Relational Aggression

It is defined as harm that occurs through injury or manipulation of a relationship (Young, Boye & Nelson, 2006). It includes both indirect(covert) behavior and direct(overt) behavior. Relationally aggressive acts are generally seen as more socially appropriate than are direct aggressive act and adolescents believe that adults have not the authority to discipline relational aggression (Terranova, Sheffield, Morris & Boxer, 2008). Some examples of relational aggression include threatening to stop talking to a friend, isolating a peer from his or her group of friends, spreading rumors or gossip within a peer group (Young et al., 2006).
2.4.1.3 Instrumental Aggression

It is controlled, purposeful and used to achieve a desired external goal. It is described as aggression as a “means to an end”- that is incentives motivated behavior. According to Bandura (1983), instrumental aggression is viewed as goal driven behavior motivated by attainment of an external reward. It is aimed to obtain an object, privilege or space with no deliberate intent to harm another person (Berk, 1999). According to Berkowitz (1993) & Geen (2001) explained that, it is conceived as a means of obtaining a goal other than harming the victim. It is also intends on causing harm, but its reasoning stems from some other end other than anger (Myers, 2008).

2.4.1.4 Reactive and Proactive Aggression

Children’s aggression can differ in their function. One important distinction is whether aggression is proactive or reactive. Reactive aggression is hot, impulsive, angry behavior that is motivated by a desire to harm someone whereas Proactive aggression is so cool, premeditated, planned behavior that is motivated by some other goal such as money. According to Card & Little (2006); Crick & Dodge (1996); Dodge (1991) stated that, proactive aggression is a planned and goal-directed aggressive behaviors, whereas reactive aggression consists of aggressive displays enacted in anger following perceived negative experiences such as provocation or frustration. According to Bushman & Anderson (2001), argued that it is difficult to demarcate proactive and reactive aggression because they are significantly correlated due to mixed motivation. Another study by Hubbard et al., (2002) also stated that, reactive aggression is a hot blooded anger and is more emotionally driven whereas
proactive aggression is more planned and cold blooded behavior that are not related with the expression of anger.

2.4.1.5 Positive and Negative Aggression

Aggression in a positive sense, is necessary and adaptive throughout childhood and adolescence because it helps to build autonomy and identity (Gupta, 1983; Romi & Itskowitz, 1990). Positive aggression is healthy, productive behavior, it promotes the basic values of survival, protection, social acceptance and intimate relations (Ellis, 1976). On the contrary, negative aggression, has been defined as an act of injury or destruction of property (Moyer, 1968). It has also defined as attacking behavior that harms another of the same species (Atkins et al., 1993). Negative aggression is considered unhealthy because it includes heightened emotions that can be demanding to the individual in long life.

2.4.2 Different Theories of Aggression

Social scientists have given different theoretical perspectives of aggression. Following are some perspectives which explain the reasons of aggressive behaviors of adolescents.

2.4.2.1 Biological Theory

Biological processes may play a significant role in predisposing the aggressive behavior. The prefrontal region of the brain normally acts to control and regulate the emotional experiences. Reduced activity of prefrontal cortex has been associated with violent and antisocial/aggressive behavior (Caramaschi et al., 2008). A study make an evidence that poor functioning of the prefrontal and temporal regions of the brain is related to violent offenders (Henry & Moffitt, 1997; Moffitt, 1990; Raine, 2002). On
the other hand, various neurotransmitters and hormones specially testosterone have been shown to correlate with aggression. This sex hormone plays a significant role in shaping aggressive behavior. Archer (1991) stated that, violent offenders have been found to have significantly greater levels of testosterone. Besides the factors, it is also necessary to mention that malnutrition such as iron deficiency (Werbach, 1992) and Zinc deficiency (Brophy, 1986) negatively affect in the growth and development of brain and that impairments resulting antisocial and violent behaviors of an individuals (Liu, Raine, Venables & Mednick, 2004).

2.4.2.2 Frustration-Aggression Theory

The frustration aggression theory originally conceived by Dollard et al., (1939) but later substantially refined by Berkowitz (1978) and others stated that, frustration is a feeling of tension that occurs when our efforts to reach some goal are blocked. When this occurs, it can produce feelings of anger which in turn can generate feelings of aggression and aggressive behavior. According to Dollard, Doob, Miller, Mowrer, & Sears (1939), summarized the theory in two bold statements as (1) the occurrence of aggressive behavior always presupposes the existence of frustration and (2) the existence of frustration always leads to some form of aggression. So frustration is another cause of aggression. It increases when a person feels that he/she is being blocked from achieving a goal (Aronson et al., 2005). Most provocations can be seen as frustration in which a person has been identified as the agent responsible for the failure to attain the goal.

2.4.2.3 Social-Learning Theory

According to social learning theories (Bandura 1983, 2001; Mischel 1973, 1999; Mischel & Shoda 1995), people acquire aggressive responses as same as
they acquire other forms of social behavior by direct experience or by observing others. Briefly, it has been said that, behavior is controlled by reinforcement (Bandura, 1978). The model highlights the roles of observational and experiential learning in the acquisition of aggressive behavior. Bandura (1986) has stated that social learning depends on the mental representations of the child in the social environment. Rewards and punishments for aggression are represented in the form of expectancies of future outcomes of aggression. For instance, if the behavior is rewarded the child is inspired to increase the aggressive behavior and if the behavior is punished then the child decreases his/her aggressive behavior.

2.4.2.4 Cognitive –Neoassociation Theory

Berkowitz (1989, 1990, 1993) has proposed that some aversive components like provocations, loud noises, uncomfortable temperatures and unpleasant odors produce negative affect that automatically stimulates various thoughts, memories and physiological responses associated with both fight and flight tendencies. That means, when people experience an unpleasant event, they want to stop it (fight) or get away from it (flight). Aversive stimulation produces initially undifferentiated negative effect. In this theory, aggressive thought, emotions and behavioral tendencies are associated together in memory (Collins & Loftus, 1975). According to the theory, this negative affect leads to aggression and this negative affect may be the outcome of real threats to self and faulty cognition. This theory also includes higher order cognitive processes, such as, appraisals and attributions. This is particularly relevant for children in dysfunctional families.
2.4.2.5 Script Theory

According to Huesmann (1986, 1998), if children observe violence in the mass media, then they learn aggressive scripts. Scripts define situations and guide behavior. The person first selects a script to represent the situation and then assumes a role in the script. This approach is more specific and detailed account of social learning process.

2.4.2.6 Observational Learning Theory

Human and primate young people have an innate tendency to imitate what they observe (Meltzoff, 2005; Meltzoff & Moore, 1977). Aggressive behaviors are no different from other motor behaviors. Thus, the hitting, grabbing, pushing behaviors that young children see around them or in the mass media are generally immediately mimicked unless the child has been taught not to mimic them (Bandura, 1977; Bandura, Ross, & Ross, 1961, 1963). Human aggression is largely learnt by watching other people behave aggressively either in person or in movies (Charles, 1982). On the other hand, automatic imitation of expression on others’ faces can lead to the automatic activation of the emotion. For example, angry expressions stimulate angry emotions in observers (Prinz, 2005; Zajonc, Murphy, & Inglehart, 1989).

2.4.2.7 Ego Depletion Theory

Another theoretical approach for aggression is “ego depletion theory” (Baumeister, Bratslavsky, Muraver, & Tice, 1998; Dewall, Baumeister, Stillman, & Gailliot, 2005). Self-regulating internal standard and beliefs are important elements for inhibiting aggression. Self-control is a general capacity for bringing one’s behavior into line with rules and standard. Self-control can be depleted by demanding tasks, which makes aggression more likely. For example, people who have to exercise
self-control self-control behave more aggressively than those who do not have to exercise self-control.

2.4.3 Factors That May Cause Aggressive Behavior

There are many possible causes of aggression in human beings. Some of the causes of the increased aggressive behavior stem from different sector of society, for example, the unfavorable family environment and violence in school (Straus, 2000; Hyman, 1995), unhealthy peer group, unhealthy exposure to violent media (Bushman & Huesmann, 2001), unsatisfactory attitude regarding educational institution. All these factors are significantly responsible for the aggression among youth. Kour (2001) revealed that frustration is one of the criteria which lead to anger and aggression. Another study by Watson et al., (2004) stated that, low cohesive families, high levels of victimization by peers and high behavioral inhibition have closely related to aggressive tendency among adolescents. On the contrary, favorable environment at home, high parental support, high levels of self-confidence, low levels of expectations from child, healthy peer group are such factors which can help the youth to lower down their aggression level (Imtiaz et al., 2010). There are some factors:

2.4.3.1 Personal factors which are the characteristics of a person are significantly related to the aggressiveness of adolescents:

2.4.3.1.1 Testosterone

It is the significant attributes that increases aggression. Experimental studies indicated that greater level of testosterone leads to increase aggression in a range of species (Monaghan & Glickman, 1992) including humans (Book et al., 2001). Another study also found that, there is a correlation of testosterone with aggressive behavior
among males (Turberg et al., 2009; Harmans et al., 2008; Mehta et al., 2010; Card et al., 2008).

2.4.3.1.2 Personality traits

Many personality traits predispose individuals to high levels of aggression. High self-esteem produces high aggression. Unstable self-esteem are prone to anger and are highly aggressive when their high self image is threatened (Baumeister et al., 1996; Bushman & Baumeister, 1998; Kernis et al., 1989).

2.4.3.1.3 Provocation

Most important single cause of human aggression is interpersonal provocation (Berkowitz 1993, Geen 2001). It includes insults, slights, verbal aggression, interference with one’s attempts to attain an important goal.

2.4.3.1.4 Frustration

It is another cause of aggression. Most recent work has shown that the target of aggression is not the person who caused the initial frustration where in the aggression is displaced (Marcus-Newhall et al., 2000; Pederson et al., 2000).

2.4.3.1.5 Pain and discomfort

It is one of the another stimulation of aggression. Berkowitz has shown that, some non-social conditions like hot temperature, loud noises, and unpleasant odors etc increase aggression.

2.4.3.2 Environmental factors that leads to an increased risk of violent behavior in children and mostly in adults.
2.4.3.2.1 Socio-economic status

It is a position of individuals and families within a hierarchical social structure based on wealth, prestige and power (Mueller & Parcel, 1981) and it is measured through parental education, parental occupation and family income (Gollfried, 1985; Hauser, 1994; Mueller & Parcel, 1981).

Adolescents from lower socio-economic status often face challenges. Low socio-economic status children are more frequently exposed stressful negative life events such as violence (Atter, Guerra & Tolan, 1994; Brady & Matthews, 2002; Garbarino, Kostelney & Dubrow, 1991). Lower socio-economic status is widely accepted to have deleterious effects on the well-being and development of children and adolescents.

The study by Galgotra (2013) designed to assess aggression of adolescent and its relation to sex and socio-economic status. A sample was randomly selected from the age group of 15-17 years old adolescents from Jammu District of J & K State. The findings of the study indicated that, boys show high aggression level than girls and adolescents from low socio-economic status are significantly more aggressive than high socio-economic status adolescents. This study also revealed that cultural poverty of home is related to aggression, as low socio-economic status is also a powerful resource of aggression. The reason behind that, low socio-economic status cannot fulfill their demands that cause certain increase of frustration which leads to aggression.

Another study by Buka, Stichick, Birdthistle & Felton (2001) stated that, adolescents from low income neighborhoods witnessed significantly more severe violence like murders and stabbings than adolescents from middle and upper income
neighborhoods. In the study by Molnar et al., (2008) indicated that, lower levels of socio-economic status have been found to be closely associated with higher levels of aggression. According to Tuvblad, Grann & Lichtenstein (2006), adolescents with low socio-economic status are not genetically predisposed display fewer antisocial behaviors than those with a high socio-economic status and a predisposition to experience and express anger. Those who are both genetically and economically disadvantaged are even more likely to express antisocial and violent behavior.

Another regional survey-based studies experienced that, low socio-economic status is associated with more frequent and severe delinquent and criminal behavior among adolescents (Loeber & Wikstrom, 1993; Peeples & Loeber, 1994; Sampson, Raudenbush & Earls, 1997). More recently, one of the other studies provide further support of the above link (Ludwig, Duncan & Hirschfeld, 2001).

2.4.3.2.2 Media

Now-a-days, the influence of media has become a powerful device for change. These new technologies have tremendous influence about learning and knowledge acquisition on adolescents’ life. It is a combination of internet connection; give children and adolescents’ new ways of playing games as well as access to more diverse forms of stimulating content (Donnerstein, 2011). Though these conduits has many benefits They pore some risk factors as well. In new technologies there are so many opportunities for viewing violent content that may affect adolescents’ psychological development and mental state.

Most of the research focused on the fact that, viewing violence in the media makes the children and adolescents more violent. The most direct and obvious way in which watching violent content results violent behavior through imitation. Anderson
et al.,(2003); Bushman & Huesman,(2006); Huesman,(2007); Huesman & Kirw et al.,(2007) conducted some studies which enumerated that, watching violent T.V shows, movies, playing violent video games increase aggressive behavior among adolescents. Many cross-sectional studies found that children who have regularly experienced more violent media have an increased probability of behaving more aggressively in real life. Anderson et al.,(2008) also supported the above evidence.

A correlational study by Anderson and Dill (2000) shared that, violent video game play is closely associated with aggressive behavior and delinquency. Harmful effect of playing video games may be even greater for children who are already at higher risk for aggressive behavior. In another study by Anderson & Dill (2000); Anderson & Bushman (2002) have enumerated General Aggression model to explain the theoretical perspective of the relation between violent video game and aggressive cognition, attitude and behaviors. It is a multi stage process in which personal (aggressive personality) and situational (video game and provocation) input variables lead to aggressive by influencing many internal states and that results outcome of automatic and controlled appraisal or decision. American Academy of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry (AACAP); American Psychological Association (APA); American Academy of Pediatrics (AAP) and American Medical Association (AMA) (2000) jointly stated that, there is a causal relationship between media violence and aggressive behavior. Adolescents with greater levels of hostile are more likely to be involved in violent activity than low hostile adolescents. When they engage themselves in violent video games, then their aggression level increases in a greater way.
2.4.3.2.3 Peers

During adolescence, peers have significant role. As they grow up their attachment and closeness becomes more distant from parents and they want to depend on peers for acceptance as compared to parents (Chung & Steinberg, 2006). Another study by Santor et al., (2000); Zinzow et al.,(2009) found that, peers’ opinions often matter more than that of parents. In the study by Mahony & Stattin (2000) found that, adolescents who spend time with deviant peers, did not attend the school regularly, were physically aggressive and were more likely to engage in antisocial behavior. Relationship based on mutual commitment, responsibility, affection peer relationship provides satisfaction for adolescents’ increasing needs for intimacy (Buhrmester, 1996; Erwin, 1998), loyalty and trustworthiness (Bernadt et al., 1986; Buhrmester & Furman, 1987; Hartup, 1983; Youniss &Smollar,1985) and also provide emotional and practical support (Newcomb &Bagwell, 1995; Stanton-Salazar & Spina, 2005). But not all peer groups may be equally healthy and adaptive. Sometimes, friendship of aggressive children provide coercion and conflicts (Dishion, Andrews & Crosby, 1995; Hawley, Little & Card, 2007). Children who are unable to form peer relationships are not only at risk for later delinquency and substance use, but are also more likely to associate with other deviant peers (Dishion, 2000). In the study by Paetsch, Beytrand,1997; Erdley, Asher,1998; Snyder, Dishion, Patterson,1989 concluded that, the association between anti-social friends and aggressive behavior may be due to peer socialization and peer affiliation were found to increase aggressive behavior. Another study by Orbio De Castro, Veerman, Koops, Bosch and Monshouwer (2002) found that aggressive youth often experience rejection by their peer, which exacerbates their innate hostile tendencies.
Peer pressure is defined as the social pressure to adopt certain behaviors in order to fit in with others (Santor, Messeryvey & Kusumaker, 2000). Several empirical studies have established the fact that, there is a close relationship between peer pressure and antisocial behavior (Mahoney & Stattin, 2000; Chung & Steinberg, 2006; Zinzow, Ruggiero, Hanson, Smith, Sanders & Kilpatrick, 2009; Santor et al., 2000). Espelage and colleagues (2003) further investigated the relation between the concurrence of aggression in individuals and their friendship network in a longitudinal framework. Adolescent antisocial behavior is also influenced by peer deviance and family processes (Vazsonyi et al. 2008). According to Warr (2002), peer delinquency is also associated with an adolescent’s own involvement.

According to Henggeler (1989), adolescence association with delinquent peers can contribute to deviant behavior. This statement is supported by the study by Cheung (1997) that the adolescents are more likely to be involved in deviant behavior when they see their friends commit deviant acts. So, modeling and social approval for aggressive behavior are the two process that determine the adoption of antisocial and aggressive activities.

2.4.4 Parent-Adolescent Relationship That Stimulate The Aggressive Behavior of Adolescents:

In the development of adolescents’ life, the quality of parent-adolescent relationship is vital. The interaction between adolescent and parents can lead to conflict (Steinberg, 1990). Early adolescence from the age range of 10-15 years has been associated with higher levels of conflict with parents (Laursen, Coy & Collins, 1998). The study by Dekovic, Janseens & Van As (2003) shows that, quality of parent-adolescent relationships explains adolescent anti-social behavior. Dekovic
(1999) found that, the negative parent adolescent relationship is associated with higher levels of externalizing problem behavior like verbal and physical aggression and act of violence (Nelson, Rutherford & Wolford, 1996). According to Dekovic et al., (2003) demonstrated that, lack of intimacy; mutuality, more blaming and anger are responsible for the relationship between adolescents with antisocial behavior and their parents. Dhillon and Tung (2004) and Sandhu and Tung (2006) have also reported that family environments marked by openly expressed conflicts, anger and aggression hampers the well-being and mental health of the adolescents thereby curbing their achievement of an identity.

Wu et al., (1998) infer that, as the adolescent grows older, he or she wants to get freedom from authority, has more courage to try out new things and to increase in rebellious nature. WHO (2013) has described adolescence stage comprised of 10-19 years of age. During this stage, adolescents are often unable to cope up with drastic transition of their life. They face some psychological problem due to disturbed interaction in between parents, teachers, peers and other relationships. Parents and teachers’ high expectations, sexual experimentation and substance abuse etc are associated with aggression of adolescents. Different longitudinal studies both in Western and Indian conditions have confirmed that aggressive behavior rises to its peak during adolescence (Kapur, 1985; Singer, 2007).

The study by, Dutta & Firdoush (2012) investigated, to find out different socio-demographic characteristics associated with aggression among adolescents. The sample size was 287. The sample comprised of 15-19 years of adolescents from Ramnagar, Jalapara and Rasulpur villages of Singur block of Hooghly District of West Bengal in Eastern India. Direct and Indirect Aggression Scale (DIAS) was used to tabulate the data and the data was analyzed through using SPSS 16. The results
indicated, high proportion of adolescents scored very high in DIAS scale. Total aggression score was significantly higher among older adolescents (18-19 years), among males, among adolescents from lower socio-economic status and whose mothers were working. Physical aggression score was significantly higher in younger adolescents.

According to the State Crime Records Bureau, Govt. of West Bengal (one of the State of India) report of Juvenile cases for the year 2009 - Theft: 37 cases; Rape: 20 cases and Murder: 8 cases. There is an increase of juvenile crimes as compared to the previous year record. This problem needs immediate attention of parents. Parenting has been recognized as a powerful vehicle in socializing the child (Utti, 2006). Ukoha (2003); Onyewadume (2004) and Otuadah (2006) analyzed that, for family financial commitments, the parents both the mother and father are working outside. Due to that, they did not spend quality time with their children to monitor their activities and to guide in their upbringing. On the other hand, parental childrearing styles with strict discipline, parental disharmony, rejection of the child, inadequate involvement result delinquency among adolescents (Okorodudu & Okorodudu, 2003). Adolescent anti-social behavior is related to poor child rearing practices, poor supervision, harsh discipline, parental disharmony, rejection of the children, and low involvement (Scott, 1998; Simons et al., 2007). When children are rejected by their parents, their sense of conscientiousness is likely to be negatively affected, their feelings of empathy are likely to be lowered, and their perception of their self-worth is likely to be negative (Buikhuisen, 1988). Parents who are cruel, rejecting, or display anti-social traits have been found to significantly influence the manifestation of behavioral problems in children and adolescents (Barnow, Schuckit, Lucht, & Freyberger, 2002; Patterson, 1999). It has also been found in a study.
published in an issue of ‘The Journal of Children Psychology and Psychiatry’ that over reactive parenting such as heavy criticism or yelling as a response to children’s negative behaviour can produce higher levels of aggression or rule breaking in children who are normally introverted, non-violent and imaginative (2010). In a recent study by Buschgens et al., (2010) suggests that, adolescents who perceive a lack of emotional warmth and high levels of both rejection and overprotection, are as more distracted, aggressive and criminal. Also, it seems that perceived parental rejection may have a bigger effect on aggression and criminal behavior than on other symptoms such as lack of attention, impulsivity, or hyperactivity (Buschgens et al., 2010).

The study by Kring et al., (2007) was on a clinical case of 19 year old adolescent. Due to excessive drugs use he had irregular breathing, rapid pulse and other physiological problems. Apart from these physiological symptoms he had some delinquent activities like disobedience, stealing and selling some household items for money and videos. All these activities are resulting from poor parental strategy and parental disharmony. Thus, parental accord is a requisite for a well adjusted adolescent.

On the other hand different patterns of parenting may affect the adolescents life. According to Palmer (2009), authoritative parenting was positively associated with children’s adjustment. on the contrary, authoritarian parenting was negatively associated with children’s adjustment. Fletcher et al., (2008) found that authoritarian families provide negative effects of yielding to coercion of internalizing, externalizing, and social problems. Fletcher et al. further explained that greater use of punitive discipline caused more externalizing problems within the indulgent and authoritarian parenting style groups. The authoritarian parenting style constitutes of
parents who are often harsh and maintain strict discipline (Ang & Groh, 2006). Asian Indian parenting practices typically include authoritarian parenting styles (Jambunathan & Counselman, 2002; Inman et al., 2007). Other study by Odubote (2008) found that, authoritarian parenting style is highly associated with delinquent behavior and externalizing behavioral problems (Brar, 2003). Many researcher inferred that Neglectful and permissive parenting, which have very few disciplinary actions, lack of supervision, and lack of support, were found to have the strongest links to antisocial behavior (Schaffer et al., 2009; Hoeve et al., 2009; Hoeve et al., 2008; Mullens, 2004; Wright & Cullen, 2001). On the other hand permissive parenting style is significantly correlated with antisocial behavior (Sommer, 2007) and externalizing problem behaviors (Wu, 2009). According to Bradley & Corwyn, 2008), authoritarian parents may use harsh, punitive punishment that can instigate antisocial behavior of children with difficult temperament.

Behavioral problems of the child often originate in their homes (Onyechi and Okere, 2007). Home without love, warmth, care, affection but have the parents harsh and aggressive may make the adolescent run away from home, rebellious and have negative associations and other delinquent behaviours follow (Ang, et al 2006; Odebunmi, 2007; Okpako, 2006; Otuaadah, 2006; Utii, 2006). Exposure to domestic violence can have significantly negative effect on child’s development and the well-being of the individual. An adolescent who is accustomed to observe his parents fight together is more likely to instigate fights and doing aggressive (Taylor, Novaco, Gillmer & Thorne, 2002; Calvete & Oreu, 2011). In the study by Carlson (1991); Jaffe et al., (1986) stated that, children who observed family violence very closely, are more likely to use violence and display violent behavior (Dauvergne & Johnson, 2001; Singer et al., 1988). Many other studies demonstrated that children who witnessed
their father abuse their mother are more likely to be violent in their own relationships (APA, 1996; Johnson, 1996; Dauvergne & Johnson, 2001).

Interparental conflict is associated with negative psychological symptoms among children (Davies & Cummings, 1998; Nicolotti, El-Sheikh & Whiteson, 2003) and adolescents (Davies & Lindsay, 2004; Harold & Congers, 1997; Harold, Shelton, Goek-Morey & Cummings, 2004). There is a close relationship between marital conflict and adjustment problems (Davies & Cummings, 1998; Harold et al., 2004). The children may be affected by family conflict through broken homes. The incident of parental separation may increase the children’s embarrassment and depression (Boroffice, 2004; Hyssong, 2000) so that they perform poorly in school, and express aggression and participate in delinquent acts (Atkinson, 2004; Boroffice, 2004; Okorodudu, 2006). On the other hand, according to different studies, there was significant relationship between intergenerational transmission of attachment and of aggression. Thus, it has been found that both aggression (i.e., Hare, Miga, & Allen, 2009) and anger (i.e., Downey, Purdie, & Schaffer-Neitz, 1999) can be transmitted from parents to sons/daughters.

So there is a significant relationship between father’s and mother’s aggression and adolescents aggressive behaviors (Carrasco, Holgado, Rodriguez & Barrio, 2009). Adolescents who noticed avoidance attachment between their parents exhibited higher levels of anger and hostility than those who had secured and more attached parents. Passer & Smith (2007) described avoidant children as angry, aggressive, isolated and disliked by their peers. They perceived their parents as displaying low emotional warmth, high rejection, negligence, strict control and inconsistency in their attitudes. These children significantly related with high levels of anger and hostility (Muris, Meesters, Moren & Moorman, 2004).
Summary: Anger is a normal emotional state that everyone has. It is found in everyday interaction of adolescents with their parents, teachers, peers and other relationships that play a significant role in their lives. Aggression and violence are undoubtedly increasing psychosocial issues among adolescents life. Anger and aggressive behavior is complex because many factors may involved in it. Any one cause and factor is not responsible for the increase of aggression. For example, there is a strong relationship between aggression and adolescents’ maltreatment, parental disharmony, poor family management, parent-adolescent conflict, peer pressure, socio-economic status, and the last but not the least media violence. All these factors may conceivably contribute to the upbringing of the child properly. Awareness of these factors may help to avoid situations that cause enhancement of aggressive tendencies among adolescents.

2.5 Study Habit and Academic Achievement

Good study-habits are the essence of a dynamic personality. The concept of study habit is a combination of study attitude, study method and study skill. Allport (1960) stated that, attitude towards study has great contribution in academic achievement and good study patterns. According to Hussain (2000), study attitude is a predisposition which students have developed towards private reading through a period of time. A proper study habit enables an individual to ensure a proper future life. Study habits are learning tendencies that enable students to work privately. According to Gardner (1978), study habits are those behaviors that are associated with learning. Proper study habits result in positive learning outcomes while defective study habits results in poor learning outcomes. Azikiwe (1998) described the study habit as the way and technique by which student plans his private readings, after class
room learning so as to attain perfection in the subject. According to her, good study habits are the valuable asset to learners because it helps the students to attain efficiency in areas of specialization and acquiring excellent performances, while the opposite becomes a constraint to learning and achievement and leads to failure. Study habits are well-planned and deliberate patterns of study which have attained consistency on the part of the students toward understanding academic subjects and passing at examination. (Basir et al., 2012). A good study habit act as a strong weapon for the student to excel in life. Effective study habits help students to achieve good results (Sadia, 2005). Ramamurti (1993) has rightly emphasized that despite possessing good intelligence and personality, the absence of good study habits hampers academic achievement. Hence, study habits of students’ plays important role in learning and fundamental to school success.

Academic achievement has become an index of child’s ability in this highly competitive world. It occupies a very important place in education as well as in the learning process. It is generally expressed with pedagogical terminologies which are used to know the learners’ success in formal education and which are measured through results of examinations. The Dictionary of Psychology (Atkinson et al., 1988) defines achievement as a specified level of proficiency in scholastic or academic work. Education or achievement is a specified level of proficiency in academic work as evaluation of both. The National Policy on education (Federal Republic of Nigeria, 2004) has identified school achievement contents according to school subjects which are classified as core or elective subjects. In the present society academic achievement is a key criterion to judge one’s total potentialities and capacities (Nuthan & Yenagi, 2009). Academic achievement denotes the knowledge and skill developed in the school subject, usually designated by test scores. According to Lent et al., (2000),
academic achievement is a mechanism by which adolescents know about their talents, abilities and competencies which are an important factor for developing career aspirations and academic achievement and career aspirations in adolescence are often correlated (Abu-Hilal, 2000).

Some students have better study habits while the others have poor. The better the study habit the better is the academic achievement, while defective study habit results in poor learning outcomes. In the study by Leland (1986); MacDougal (1999) found that, high achievers will have good study habits and consequently good academic achievement. On the contrary, Kemjika(1998) assured that, poor study habit definitely ends in poor academic achievement. Academic achievement signifies the extent of knowledge the individual has acquired from the school. Academic achievement of the students is determined by their study habits. Nuthana and Yenagi (2009) concluded that, there is a significant correlation between study habits and academic achievement. Both study habits and academic achievement are interrelated and dependent on each other. The study by Nagaraju (2004) found that, adolescents who do not devote sufficient time to their studies and seldom have proper study habits had low academic achievement. He also pointed out that for good academic success, good study habits and attitudes are important. Every child, whether gifted or backward should be educated in his own way. But if they possess good study habits they can show performance in academics and in all situations. If children do not possess good study habits they cannot excel in life. The national Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) in 1994 conducted a study to find out the relationship between study habits and academic performance of the students. Good study habits lead to good academic achievement and bad study-habits lead to poor academic performance as there is direct relationship between study habits and academic
achievement. Study habits play an important role in human performance in the academic field (Verma, 1996; Verma & Kumar, 1999; Satapathy & Singhal, 2000; Vyas, 2002). Ramamurti (1993) has rightly emphasized that despite possessing good intelligence and personality, the absence of good study habits hampers academic achievement. Hence, study habits of students play important roles in learning and are fundamental to academic success. Findings of Ramamurti’s study revealed a positive correlation between study habit and academic achievement. Another study by Onwuegbuzie (2001) revealed a positive relationship between academic success and study habit.

Verma (1996) investigated the effect of study habits on academic achievement of students from schools in Delhi. 500 samples were selected by using random cluster sampling technique. The data was analyzed by using two way analysis of variance to know the main and interaction effects. The findings of the result concluded that, students possessing good study habits scored higher than students possessing poor study habits in these courses. In the study by Singh (2011) investigated the relationship between academic achievement and study habits of higher secondary students. The data consisting of 100 students was randomly selected from two higher secondary schools. Study habits scale by M.Mukopadhayaya and D.N Sansanwal was used and for academic achievement half yearly exam marks of the students were collected from the records. The results indicated that girls and boys differ significantly in their study habits and academic achievement. It also shows a good co-relation between study habits and academic achievement. Another study by Fazal (2012) enumerated that, study skills are highly related to academic achievement. The findings of the study indicated that, there is a significant relationship of time-management skills, reading and note taking skills with academic achievement.
Students with higher academic achievement used a wide range of study skills as compared to students with lower academic achievement.

2.5.1 Factors that influence Study Habit and Academic Achievement

Nuthana & Yenagi, (2009) have identified some factors which are responsible for poor academic achievement: intellectual ability, poor study habit, low selfconcept, low socio-economic status of the family, poor parenting style and so on. A Daily Sketch Publication on (2006) also categorized the causes of poor performance of University undergraduate students. Such factors are problem of teachers, problem of inadequate facilities in the school, problems traceable to students, problems caused by parents and the society at large and problems of government policies and low funding of educational sector (Ajila and Olutola 2007). In the study by Ichado (1998) also argued that, the environment from which the student comes from can greatly influence his performance academically in the school.

2.5.1.1 The socioeconomic status

The socioeconomic status of learners affects the quality of their academic performance. Adam (1996) stated that, low socioeconomic status has negative effect on the academic performance of children because they did not fulfill their requirements through which they perform better academically. The low socioeconomic status causes environmental deficiencies which results in low self esteem of students (US Department of Education, 2003). There are positive correlation between parental education and family SES level and academic achievement of students (Caldas & Bankston, 1997; Jeynes, 2002; Parelius, D., & Parelius, A., 1987; Mitchell & Collom, 2001; Ma & Klinger, 2000). The students with high level of SES perform better than the middle class students and the middle class
students perform better than the students with low level of SES (Garzon, 2006; Kahlenberg, 2006; Kirkup, 2008). It is also found that, the economically disadvantaged parents are not able to afford the requirements of education for their children at higher levels and consequently they do not achieve at their fullest potential (Rouse & Barrow, 2006).

Singh & Singh (1995) investigated the study habits of advantaged and disadvantaged college students. Based on socio economic status that is characterized by family income, education and occupation of the parents, caste, and rural - urban residence. The sample comprised of 150 advantaged and 150 disadvantaged male college students . The study habits questionnaire was developed to collect the data. The chi-square test indicated significant difference between two groups. The advantaged group compared to disadvantaged group, had better study mechanisms, regularity in study, attentiveness in the classroom and habit of seeking help from teachers and classmates. So, it can be said that, higher SES levels lead to higher performance of students in studies, and it is vice versa (Hanes, 2008). Another study by Nagaraju et al., (2002) investigated the study habits of adolescents in relation to certain sociological factors. The study comprised of 460 sample from class IX. Results revealed that fathers and mothers educational qualification have significant influence on the study habits. Annual income of the family has no significant influence on the study habits of IX class pupils. According to Vista & Grantham (2010), higher family SES is associated with higher levels of school achievement. On the other hand, children from low SES families may be access to those same services and goods.
2.5.1.2 Peers

Friends or peers are vital components in adolescents' life without which they cannot live. When the peers are good in studies and have healthy competition among other members in the group, they will be academically good and a high achiever but if they are indulged in negative activities, it's difficult for one to prevent himself from being involved in it. So they will be low achievers. Boujlaleb (2006) inferred that, peers and friends have a more powerful influence on adolescents' life as compared to families. Johnson (2000) carried out a study on “The peer group effect on academic achievement among public elementary school students” indicating that peer effect had a strong influence on academic achievement. Nelson and DeBacker (2008) found a positive correlation between adolescents who experience positive relationship with peers and students' achievement. Tope (2011) investigated the influence of peer group on adolescent’s academic performance. The sample of the study was 150 randomly selected students from four secondary schools. The findings were that the peer group could either positively or negatively influence the academic performance in school. Tope recommended that parents and teachers may provide adequate guidance to adolescents to help them understand how the friends can positively or negatively influence their academic performance. The study by Jacobson & Burdsal (2012), demonstrated relational significance of peer influences to academic performance during adolescents. The results of this study provide evidence for the importance of adolescent friendships and their impact on academic performance.

2.5.1.3 Media

It is a popular social communicating process. In today’s society, media are thoroughly integrated into our life including electronic gadgets such as TV,
Videogames, Smart phone, Internet, IPod etc. All these new technologies have tremendous resources for learning and knowledge acquisition as compared to the past. Backer(2010) investigated the role of new technologies like Face book and smart phones on student. He found that such applications create a sense of motivation and responsibility and thus enriches learning experiences. There are some negative effects of mass media on teenagers. Several studies have found a significant negative relation between the amount of screen time (television viewing and video game play) and school performance of children, adolescents, and college students (Rideout et al.,2010; Anderson et al.,2007; Cordes et al.,2000;Robinowitz et al.,2006; Sarif et al.,2006). That is, high amounts of time on screen media are associated with poorer school performance. One explanation is the displacement hypothesis, which states that video games (and other screen media) may displace time that would otherwise be spent on activities such as reading, homework, or other enrichment activities(Gentile et al.,2004). In one study of a large nationally represented sample of youth aged 10 to 19 years, gamers spent less time reading and less time doing homework in comparison with nongamers (Cummings et al.,2007). The amount of game play has been linked to poorer academic performance and increased risk of obesity (Berkey et al.,2000). In the study by Rouis et al.,(2011) investigated the effects of facebook on academic achievement of under graduate students at Lulea University of Technology in Sweden. Data was gathered from paper-and-pencil survey with 239 undergraduate students. The results indicated that, extensive use of facebook by students who have extraverted personalities lead to poor academic performance. According to Kuppuswamy and Shankar (2010) social network websites grab attention of the students and then diverts it towards non-educational and inappropriate actions including useless chatting. Another research by Paul, J.A., Baker, H. M. & Cochran, J.D.
(2012), in his research on effect of online social networking on student academic performance found that there is statistically significantly negative association between time spent by students on online social networks and their academic performance. The time spent on online social networks was found to be heavily influenced by the attention span of the students. It is determined that the higher the attention span, the lower is the time spent on online social networks.

2.5.2 Effects of Patterns of Parenting and Study Habits and Academic Achievement of Adolescents

Family is the first school for young children and parents are powerful role models. Parents are understandably often anxious about what the future holds for their children. It would be hard to find a parent who does not hope that his/her adolescent child will excel in studies and be able to reap the fruits of academic success. Parenting is a convergent term of the various nurturance practices of parents. It is considered to be an important determinant which affects the whole life of a child. While some people may want their children to follow their instructions verbatim, others may want to be more liberal, or may want their directions followed on more logical grounds. Some parents may have strong ideas on ethics, like honesty, trust, violence, etc, while others may take a more lax view of these matters. So, parenting styles have been described as the collection of parents behaviors which create an atmosphere of parent child interactions across situations. According to Gadeyne et al.,(2004), parenting is considered to be an important element of several aspects of children’s outcomes. The study by Daulta (2008) found that, there is a positive impact of good quality home environment on the scholastic achievement of children. This means that a healthy home environment is significantly associated with high levels of success in school. Children can achieve more and improve their behavior when families as well as
parents are involved in their educational endeavor (Bryan, 2005). A child who is cherished and well cared for, usually develops good study habit. On the contrary, children who have lack parental affection, love and care, have difficulty forming stable relationships with their parents. According to Dougles (1998), emotional disturbance helps to take away the appetite to study. Unhappiness at home and resentment towards the teacher also causes poor study habit of the students.

It was found in the study by Rafiq et al. 2013 also stated that, parental expectations have a great impact on students’ outcomes. The more parents are involved in the process of imparting education to their children, the more the children may excel in their academic career. Research findings have also shown that a continued effort of parental involvement throughout the child’s education can improve academic achievement (Driessen, Smit & Sleegers, 2005; Fan, 2001; Hong & Ho, 2005). Another study by Deslorges & Abouchar (2003) concluded that, parental involvement has positive impact on children academic achievement even when the background factor of such as social class, family size, has been taken into account. According to Barnard, (2004); Henderson, (1988); Shumox & Lomax, (2001), the academic performance of students heavily depends upon the parental involvement in their academic activities to attain the higher level of quality in academic success. Ekeke et al. (2013) recommended that, good parents provide their children advantages that they actually need for their school career, and that in turn, children develop proper aims and goals of future life. So, high parental involvement leads to high achievement and low parental involvement leads to low achievement (Ahuja and Goyal 2005). Different studies have examined a strong relationship between patterns of parenting styles and the academic achievements of children and stable and strong
relationship between parenting style and a wide variety of adolescence outcomes, school results and enrollment (Chan & Koo, 2010, 2011; Koo & Chan, 2008).

Krashen (2005) conducted a study by which he stated that, adolescents whose parents are educated achieve higher on standardized tests than those whose parents were not educated. Educated parents have awareness and also can better communicate with their children regarding the school work, activities and the information being taught at school. They can better assist their children in their work and participate at school (Fantuzzo & Tighe, 2000; Trusty, 1999). So, it has been found that, the academic performance of students significantly depends upon the parental involvement in their study related activities to attain the higher level of quality in academic success (Barnard, 2004; Henderson, 1988; Shumox & Lomax, 2001).

Vamadevappa (2005) also investigated a study regarding a positive and significant relationship between parental involvement and academic achievement. It revealed that, there is a significant difference in the achievement scores of boys and girls of high parental involvement group as compared to low parental involvement group.

In this milieu, we can see that adolescents, with their varied needs and expectations from school, society, family, and most of all, from their parents are swimming in a stream. Parental expectation for achievement has a powerful effect on the extent to which children develop achievement motivation and that leads to better adolescent school performance (Thakur 2001). Some develop good study habits of concentration, good planning and eagerness and are further benefited with suitable study environment. Sustainable home environment can encourage the adolescent to develop positive attitude, about studies, planning, preparing the assignment etc (13). On the other hand Nei (1965) found that, faulty environment produces faulty learning. Every family does not carry out its task of socialization with equal
effectiveness. Thus that child is a product of his/her family environment and it is the nature of the home he/she comes from that determines the nature of the child to a great extent. The nature of the family has significant influence on the study habits of students with respect to preparation for examination and school environment (Rajendran et al., 2009).

The study by Jackson (2002) investigated the relationship between students perceptions towards their patterns of parenting and academic achievement. 111 students of class IX were selected as sample from one public high school in the States. The data was collected based on students report. The results of the study indicated that, there is a relationship between parenting style and students academic achievement. Authoritative parenting style was positively associated with academic achievement while authoritarian parenting style was negatively associated with academic achievement. Pandey (2005) studied parental disciplining behavior and academic achievement of adolescents and found that there was a positive effect of father’s disciplining behavior upon academic achievement of urban adolescents of high intellectual level; rural adolescents showed positive and significant impact of mother’s disciplining behavior upon academic achievement of average intellectual level.

Unger et al., (2000) examined the relationship between marital conflict, family support and academic functioning of adolescents. Recent studies conclude that family cohesion and openness in family communication are associated with peer acceptance at school (Gaylord, Kitzmann, & Lockwood, 2003; Steinberg & Morris, 2001) while offensive parent–child communication and conflict between parents are factors closely related to rejection by peers, aggressiveness at school, and children’s negative attitude toward school and teachers (Barrera & Li, 1996; Demaray &
Awujo (2012) indicated that autocratic, democratic and laissez-faire child rearing patterns had significant relationship with students study habits. According to Nyarko (2006), both mothers’ and fathers’ authoritativeness positively relate to the academic achievement of the students. Another study by Kordi (2011) stated that, there is a strong relationship between children’s school achievement and parenting attitude. According to Aiyappa, & Acharya (2012), authoritative styles have more positive impact on academic achievement. It further revealed that authoritative parenting styles are associated with higher levels of children’s school achievement, it may be observed that good parenting has a strong relationship with study habit. The majority of the students perceived both paternal and maternal parenting style as authoritative (Elias & Yee, 2009). That means, they felt that when their parents, both mother and father provide clear and firm direction, when their parents are rational in setting up rules for them then they can respect and follow them clearly. In a correlational study by Abar, Carter, & Winsler (2009) analysed that, authoritative parenting to be associated with high levels of academic achievement and study skills. Another study by Ang & Goh (2006) exerted that, adolescents with authoritarian parenting style in the maladjusted environment had poorer attitudes towards school and teachers as compared to adolescents in the well-adjusted environment. When parents’ expectations are not beyond their children’s capacities and when parents avoid punitive control then adolescents are more likely to achieve success in their life through proper study habit. Azizi Yahaya and Kamaliah Nordin (2006) and Lim (1998), found that the majority of the adolescents perceived their parents as authoritative. Authoritative parenting style is positively associated with students’
performance especially in academic achievement compared to authoritarian and permissive parenting styles (Steinberg, Lamborn, Darling, Mounts, & Dornbusch, 1994; Jackson, 2002).

2.5.3 Effects of aggression and prosocial-altruism on Study Habits and Academic Achievement of Adolescents

Aggressive behavior may be a universal characteristic of the human species (Chen & French, 2008; Dodge et al., 2006; Eisenberg et al., 2007; Whiting & Edwards, 1988). Aggressive behavior exerts a considerable impact on various social behaviors, school performance, and psychological adjustment (e.g., Coie et al., 1995; Rubin et al., 2006). Countless studies have been associated with children’s social behavior and their academic performance (Duncan et al., 2007). Some investigations have consistently revealed that aggression and other forms of antisocial behavior display inverse relationships with academic achievement (e.g., Williams & McGee, 1994). The study showed that the association between academic achievement and behavior problems is influenced by either genetic or intrapersonal factors (Gayan & Olson, 1999; Rhee & Waldman, 2002) or environmental factors (Ary, Duncan, Duncan, & Hops, 1999; Richman, Stevenson, & Graham, 1982). Aggressive behavior creates an adverse social and classroom environment that is destructive to the social interaction and learning processes (e.g., Chang, 2003; Hinshaw, 1992; Risi et al., 2003; Wentzel, 2005) and makes aggressive children to eventually suffer in social and school performance.

Adolescence is the developmental stage during which problematic behavior peaks in onset and as well as when academic competition is strong (Moffitt, Caspi, Rutter, & Silva, 2001). Children who are aggressive may spend relatively more time
misbehaving or being disciplined, reducing the amount of time they have to spend engaged in academic work. A problem behavior may exhibit a spurious correlation with academic achievement. Aggressive children may also develop negative relationships with teachers and peers or negative attitude towards school, and as a consequence, they exert less effort on academic work (Arnold, 1997; Wentzel & Asher, 1995). A wide variety of problem behaviors have been linked to academic underachievement. Studies of externalizing problems have suggested that aggressive behaviors in children are related to underachievement primarily because of their associations with attention problems (e.g., Frick et al., 1991). It has been found that problem behavior precedes and causes underachievement (Dishion, 1990; Jorm, Share, Matthews, & Maclean, 1986; Sanson, Prior, & Smart, 1996). On the other hand, some studies revealed that underachievement leads to problematic behavior (McGee, Williams, Share, Anderson, & Silva, 1986; Stevenson, Richman, & Graham, 1985). Thus, low academic achievement leads to a loss of self-esteem, low commitment to school, and frustration, which in turn, results in delinquency, and antisocial behavior.

Other research suggests that low academic achievement might be an outcome of weak adjustment to school environment (Midgley and Urdan, 1995; Midgley et al., 1996; Nurmi et al., 1995), that can later lead to internalizing and externalizing behavior problems (Vazsonyi and Flannery, 1997). Hinshaw (1992) reported that in attention and hyperactivity are the stronger correlates of academic achievement problems than aggressive behaviours during childhood whereas anti-social behaviours and delinquency are considered as the stronger correlates with low academic achievement during adolescence.
It was found that aggressive rejected students are less motivated toward school success and studies (Wentzel & Asher, 1995). Some other studies showed that aggressive adolescents show a more negative attitude toward school and studies (Adair, Dixon, Moore, & Sutherland, 2000; Emler & Reicher, 1995). Regarding school variables, aggressive rejected students showed more academic difficulties, also had lower levels of academic self-esteem and poorer relationships with teachers. These results are in line with previous studies showing that both rejected and aggressive children are less successful at school (Hatzichristou & Hopf, 1996; Wentzel & Asher, 1995) and usually have conflictual relationships with teachers (Murray & Murray, 2004).

Prosocial behavior plays an essential role in the development by positive interpersonal relations, and in the acceptance of peers, parents and teachers (e.g., Eisenberg et al., 2006; Gilman & Anderman, 2006; Inglés, Delgado, García-Fernández, Ruiz-Esteban, & Díaz-Herrero, 2010). There is some support for a positive relation between scores on achievement tests and children's empathy (Feshbach, 1978) or sympathy (Wise & Cramer, 1988), and between academic self-efficacy and prosocial behavior (Bandura et al., 2001, 2003). Prosocial behavior is closely related with study motivation (e.g., Gilman & Anderman, 2006; Inglés, Martínez, Valle, García-Fernández, & Ruiz-Esteban, 2011; Wentzel, 2005) and academic success (e.g., Inglés, Benavides et al., 2009; Wentzel, 2005). Thus, prosocial behavior is considered as a key factor in the promotion of social and academic competence in adolescents (e.g., Eisenberg et al., 2006; Wentzel, 2005). Prosocial behaviors play a role in fostering psychosocial adjustment in youth (Chen, Liu, Rubin, Cen, Gao, & Li, 2002; Dunn, Deater-Deckard, Pickering, O'Connor, & Golding, 1998; Eisenberg et al., 2006), in reducing vulnerability to depression and transgressive behavior (Bandura,
Barbaranelli, Caprara, & Pastorelli, 1996; Miles & Stipek, 2006; Tremblay et al., 1992) and in positively impacting academic achievement and social preferences (Caprara, Barbaranelli, Pastorelli, Bandura, & Zimbardo, 2000).

**Summary:** Habit is something that is possible through a schedule, regular and on a planned basis. A study habit is defined as a dedicated scheduled and uninterrupted ritual to apply one’s self to the task of learning. It refer to the activities that are carried out by the learner during the learning process of improving the learning of the individual. Study habit includes study attitude, study planning, study execution, home and school environment. The efficient and effective way of learning depends upon study habits of the students. On the other hand, study habits determine the academic performance of the students to a great extent. Both study habit and academic achievement are interrelated and interdependent on each other. It is also found that, home and parental Influence are the major determinants of adolescent study habit that help to develop greater academic performance.

### 2.6 Gender Differences In Adolescents Life

According to gender theory (Biddulph, 1997; Epstein et al., 1998; Weaver-Hightower, 2003), during the educational system, males and females have different sets of behaviors, attitudes and values. These gendered behaviors, attitudes and values are the result of childhood socialization in line with the cultural norms of masculinity and femininity. Many studies show that gender differences are more significant during adolescence than at any other stage in development. In gender development, most crucial processes takes place in middle childhood and adolescence, and that leads to a more mature acquisition of sex and gender roles. Awareness of gender stereotypes increases during growth and development. Estevez (2012) said that,
during adolescence boys and girls develop new cognitive skills and become more aware of the plurality of approaches to gender roles. The concept of “self” takes place, on the basis of reconsidering and integration of a new image of the body, by new feelings, desires and patterns of sexual behavior which provide a sense of coherence and unity in the search for personal identity. This self identity requires an exploration of the social contexts in which these changes take place: family, school, community and the media (Fuertes, 1996).

2.6.1 Factors that influence Gender Differences

2.6.1.1 Family

It is a basic and universal institution. Parenting may be defined as a single minded, unconditional desire to provide a loving, caring and more attached home environment. According to Musitu & Cava, 2002, family, is the process by which people acquire values, beliefs, norms and forms of behavior as per the rule of society in which they belong to. Both mothers and fathers exert major influences on the development of the child from birth to maturity. Fathers seem to be a bridge by which the child reaches the outside world (Meertoo and Burnhardt (1975). Mother symbolizes emotional support, interpersonal sensitivity and help giver and is more attached with the child. But favors and disfavors are showed by parents based on gender difference. The study by McHale, Crouter, & Whiterman, 2003, suggested that gender development in adolescents is influenced by the way mothers and fathers treat their sons and daughters. Parents may be friend, philosopher and guide, instructors, opportunity-providers and models for their children, in that their marital relationship, their personality qualities, interests and attitudes may reflect in the quality of their gender-role (McHale et al, 2003). The study by Rai, Pandey & Kumar (2009)
examined perceived parenting style and personality among Khasi adolescents. The findings of their study reveal that the father’s parenting style is different for the male and female child. He has significantly more rejecting behavior for the male child and emotional warmth for the female child.

More extensively it was found in the study by Kang & Jaswal (2011), the gender biasness in parenting patterns of Urban Panjabi parents on their children. The sample comprised of 300 families both mothers and fathers from Amritsar, Hosiarpur, Ludhiana and Patiala cities of Punjab. The data was collected by using ‘Socio-Economic Status Scale’ by Bharadwaj (2000) and ‘Multi-Dimensional Parenting Scale’ by Chauhan and Khokhar (1982). The results indicated that, there were significant gender differences in parenting patterns of urban Punjabi parents. Mothers were found to be more loving, encouraging, accepting, and progressing towards sons as compared to daughters. Whereas, fathers were using the similar positive dimensions on both sons and daughters. They were found to be more conservative towards their daughters as compared to sons. According to Kour (2008), parents have a strong desire for sons irrespective of their educational and economic status as they consider sons a must for propagation of race and sense of security. The study by Sravanthi & Kumari (2007) concluded that, authoritarian parenting style is more prominent among girls than boys. However, Kapoor (2007) found that mothers were using similar child rearing practices on their sons and daughters.

2.6.1.2 Peer

Peer relationships are a powerful gender-socializing agent during a crucial period of life, that is, adolescence. The adolescent learns norms, behaviors and attitudes regarding friendship not only from adults but also from boys and girls of a
similar age. During school life, children often form groups within classes. These
groups are structured in terms of certain aims and objectives. The group often
generates its own norms, dress, tastes and preferences, thus helping them to
differentiate from other groups and that helps them to foster internal cohesion.
According to Steinberg & Silverberg, (1986), the growing stage of adolescence is
very much able to establish more strong and stable emotional attachments, very much
aware to know the the concepts of loyalty, and of honesty in communications, and
concluded that girls were more influenced by peer relations than boys. Claes (1992)
found that adolescent males and females had similar numbers of peer relationships,
but females were more attached to peers. There is evidence to suggest that boys and
girls exhibit different behavioral patterns in their relationships, with boys stressing
independence and girls stressing relatedness (Cross & Madson, 1997).

2.6.1.3 Community

According to Trickett (2009), community means a group of people who
share their common features such as norms, values, social status and living in the
same neighborhood. A number of studies suggest that the involvement of adolescents
in community-based organizations might facilitate the socialization process and
contribute to appropriate psychosocial adjustment (Hull, Kilbourne, Reece, &
Husaini, 2008; Jessor, 1993; Sampson, Raudenbush, & Earls, 1997). The study by
South (2001) reported that, boys are more involved with their local community or
neighbourhood than girls. He found the fact that, the paternal supervision of
adolescent boys is neither as close nor as continuous as compared to adolescent girls;
as a result, boys can devote more time to activities in the community based work
From this study, it has been noted that, adolescent daughters are under stricter
parental supervision than their male counterparts, so girls will be less exposed to negative neighborhood influence. But at the same time will not benefit from the positive influences from engagement with the community.

2.6.1.4 Media

The media is a strong socializing agent for adolescents. The media exposes women in the public arena and promotes a stereotyped view of gender roles, including unrealistic images of the male and female body. Moreover, girls report a stronger media influence than boys on the image of their body (Polce-Lynch, Myers, Kliewer, & Kilmartin, 2001). Another study by Anderson, Huston, Schmitt, Linebarger, & Wright, (2001) established the fact that boys and girls who watch a lot of television have a more negative image of their body than those who watch less. In general terms, research in this field has shown that heavy television-viewing is associated with the development of stereotyped gender attitudes (Signorielli, 2001).

2.6.2 Gender Differences in Aggression Level of Adolescents

Gender is one of the individual factors that has been used as a predictor of differences in aggression (Anderson & Bushman, 2002). A research study showed that, boys are much more likely than girls to be involved in antisocial activities (Marini et al., 2006; Piquero et al., 2005; Salmivalli, Kaukiainen & Lagerspetz, 2000; Xie, Drabrick & Chen, 2011). Hypothesized that monitoring knowledge would be more strongly (negatively) related to antisocial beliefs for males than for females. Bingham et al (2006) observed that, generally boys had greater numbers of offences than girls. On the other hand, girls showed a propensity towards indirect and verbal aggression (Bjorkvist, Lagerspetz, & Kaukiainen, 1992; Tremblay et al., 1996). He also noticed from the outcome of adolescents behavior that, boys had lower
parental monitoring and greater parental permissiveness. Thus, less parental-orientation must increase boys's juvenile delinquency. Sekuku; Rimfat and Ogbonna (2003) stated that though male adolescents were by far more involved in delinquent acts, the times have changed, and more and more females are getting involved in delinquent acts. Daniel et al (2009), found that high trait anger scores and outward expression of anger were correlated with increased suicide attempts in males.

Rahman & Huq (2005) investigated aggression in adolescent boys and girls as related to socio-economic status and residential background in Bangladesh. A sample of 240 adolescents was collected from Rajshahi city. They were equally divided into boys and girls of 13-16 years of age. Each group comprised of high, middle and low SES from urban and rural sectors. The Measure of Aggressive Behavior (MAB) was used to collect the data. The data was followed 2x3x2 factorial design consisting of two genders, three levels of SES and two types of residential background. To analyze the data a three way ANOVA was used. The findings of the result indicated that, without the effect of SES and residential background, girls expressed significantly higher aggression than boys. This finding was supported in Gender and Aggression Project in Canadian Institute of Health Research by Lanctot & LeBlanc (2003). They explored that females tend to engage more in relational aggression whereas males tend to engage more in physical aggression.

2.6.3 Gender Differences in Altruistic Behavior of Adolescents

Men and women tend to place different values on altruistic acts. Krebs (1970) found that there were no gender differences in the actual performance of helping behaviors. Similarly, Chou (1998) examined the effect of gender and participation in volunteer activities on altruistic behavior. The study found that there was a positive
effect of age on altruistic behavior the older the adolescent, the greater was his/her score for prosocial behavior. Eisenberg, et al. (2006) pointed out that—based on stereotypical gender roles, females generally are expected and believed to be more responsive, empathetic, and prosocial than males, whereas males are expected to be relatively independent and achievement oriented. Women are socialized to have concern for others and to take care of one another, while men are mainly socialized to be in competition with each other.

Pandey and Griffitt (1977) conducted a study on sex difference in altruism. The study concluded that one sex is consistently more helpful than another. Depending on the nature of the experiment, men have been demonstrated to have a higher degree of displayed helpfulness. 1) Male "heroic" role encourages helping when: a) The intervention is dangerous, b) An audience is present, c) Other helpers are available, d) The encounter is short-term and the victim is a stranger. 2) Female "nurturant" role encourages helping when: a) Close relationship not strangers, b) Long-term care is required. The gender of the person being helped is an important factor in helping behavior because men and women may be more willing to help a person of the opposite sex (Basow & Crawley, 1982). Furthermore, the attractiveness of the person being helped can influence the willingness to help, especially for male helpers (Benson, et al., 1976; Harris & Bays, 1973). The research has consistently found that, when children are asked who is more altruistic, girls are generally rated as more altruistic than boys; this perception also exists in teachers (Shigetomi, Hartmann, & Gelfand, 1981).
2.6.4 Gender Differences in Study Habits of Adolescents

The study by Speth and Brown (1990) observed that, female students were more likely to adopt a deep approach and organized study methods than male students. Thus, females spent significantly more time studying than males and females had higher study scores than males (Onwuegbuzie, and Slate 2001). Another study by Khurshid & Tanveer (2012) stated that, the female students are good at the study skills and also show good results as compared to the male students. It may be due to gender difference that girls manage their time effectively and prepare for their tests and examination in a proper way. So, girls showing better performance than boys in certain instances (Chambers & Schreiber, 2004). Vamadevappa (2005) also investigated a study which explored that, there was a significant difference in the achievement scores of boys and girls of high parental involvement group as compared to low parental involvement group. In a study on which it was found that, female adolescents exhibited significantly higher academic motivation than males (Sood, 2006). Bashir and Mattoo (2012) conducted a study in which he portrayed that, there was a high significant relationship between the school environment and the school performance for female students and that were not applicable for male students. However they reported that, there was no significant difference between male and female students of secondary school in study habits. Another study by Nuthana and Yenagi (2009) also found similar study habits and study attitude of male and female students.

Summary: Gender refers to the behavior, roles, stereotypes and functions acquired by each sex through interaction in a range of sociocultural perspectives (Deaux, 1985). It is defined as a set of beliefs regarding masculinity or being a man and
femininity or being a woman and that varies from one culture to another. In the stage of growth and development, awareness of gender stereotypes increases. During childhood, gender stereotypes are rigid but imprecise; as they enter adolescence, boys and girls develop new cognitive skills and become more aware of the gender roles. As it was found that, girls and boys tend to place different values on altruistic acts, aggressive behavior and academic performance in their life, these gender differences are mostly depends on parental attitude, beliefs and expectations towards them.

2.7 Gaps in Knowledge that Require to be Attended to

Nelson and Debacker in their study (2008) had found a positive correlation between adolescents who experience positive relationships with peers and their achievement. This study proves to be of great importance since the present research deals with parenting and study habits. In line with this literature, the review made by Jacobson and Burdsal (2012) also supports the present research hypothesis to the extent that for adolescent students, relationship with the peers influences their academic performance. The result of this study provides sufficient evidence for the importance of adolescent friendship and their impact on academic performance. However, both these studies do not show how parental influences have an impact both on peer relationships and on academic achievement of adolescents. This is a gap that is being sought to be filled by the present study.

Further, the findings of the study made by Howard et al (2006) prove to be of great importance for the present research findings in establishing the hypothesis that acceptance, protection, patterns of mothering and fathering is positively associated with study habits of both adolescent boys and girls. A study by Armsden and Greenberg (1987) and others states that the higher the attachment between adolescents
and their parents, the higher the academic success of the former. However, these studies, too, do not touch on the aspect of aggression or how it can be channeled into positive qualities in the adolescent.

The study revealed by Komagata and Komagata (2008) shows that secure attachment of parents help to develop balanced personalities in children. The present research attempts to complement this by relating parental attachment with other aspects like aggression, altruism and study habit of adolescent life which perhaps was not the focus area of the studies detailed above.

Prosocial and antisocial behaviors have been conceived both as opposite ends of a single continuum and as independent characteristics of the individual (e.g., Eisenberg & Fabes, 1998; Eron & Huesmann, 1984; Feshbach & Feshbach, 1986; Graziano & Eisenberg, 1997; Hay, 1994; Pulkkinen, 1984; Shiner, 1998; Shiner & Caspi, 2003; Tremblay, 1991). Krueger et al. (2001) show in their study of adult twins that altruism, a specific form of pro-social behavior, and antisocial behavior did not correlate with each other, had different personality correlates, and different heritability estimates. Another analysis by Haapasalo et al., (2000); Pulkkinen and Tremblay, (1992), stated that, some children with high levels of prosocial behavior coexist with aggressiveness. The existing literatures indicated that, prosocial and aggressive behavior can co-exist and have little or direct relation with each other and they are not necessarily two sides of the same coin. However, all these researches do not associate parental influence on these particular characteristics of the adolescents’ life. On the other hand, how altruistic and aggressive tendencies have an effect on study habit of adolescents in a neglected aspect that requires attended too. This is a task of the present study.
The study made by Sirin (2005) and White (1982) found that there is strong correlation between family’s socio-economic status and academic achievement of students. This prove to be beneficial to the researcher in justifying some hypothesis.

This study attempts to cover some of these gaps.

OVERALL SUMMARY

In summary, studies reviewed in this chapter suggest that there are a number of issues to be addressed.

Firstly, adolescence is a time of life when the child is on the threshold of adulthood. It is a period of intense and rapid development and is characterized by numerous developmental tasks including gaining new and more mature relationship with others, achieving emotional independence from parents and the cognitive and psychological resources to face the challenges of adult life (Hazen, Schlozman & Beresin, 2008). Thus this is the time when the responsibilities of a mature adult are slowly becoming manifest in the child’s mind. The adolescent mind is filled with dreams of the future, and perhaps even some fantasy. Adolescents acquire the increasing ability to think abstractly and hypothetically. They can picture situations that did not occur (Steinberg, 2002). Adolescence is the time when the surge of life reaches its highest peak. The adolescent is eager to interact with new experience, to find new relationships, to examine resources of inner strength and fathom the strength of inner ability. They try to have freedom to think and set their own goals and discover means to achieve them. Love and power become a strong motivating force in life. Adolescence is a time of great tension. It is necessary for the young person to behave in a right manner and establish himself and obey the rules at home and outside. The young adolescent goes through a period of significant physical, emotional, intellectual, moral and social change. The nature of these changes are
intense and varied. Adolescents also experience significant changes in their ability to assess and comprehend complex situations and information and in their desire to become independent and unique individuals (Stang & Story, 2005). Different types of social relationships play different roles in motivating the development of social understanding (Dunn, 2011). During this stage, there may be some changes in their thinking process, attitude as well as their behavior. That’s why; they need to adapt these changes successfully through the influence of parents, peers and other environmental factors. Among all these factors, the parent-adolescent relationship retains its importance. These biological, cognitive, social and psychosocial changes of this period spark transformations in the parent-child relationship.

**Secondly**, one of the most consequential relationships people have in their lives is with their parents. Parents contribute a major influence through different patterns of parenting styles. The nature of parenting styles has been known to affect relationships between parents and their children (Johnson, Kent & Leather, 2004). They want their children to be successful, caring, and accepted by society. Gadeyne et al., (2004) explained that, parenting is considered to be an important element of several aspects of children’s outcomes. It is one of the hardest tasks to describe the parents’ efforts as every parent would hope to succeed in parenting. Thus, parenting style is one of the variables which have been studied extensively for human development. Their styles of care giving can have both immediate and lasting effects on children’s moral and social functioning in areas from pro-social development to peer play to academic achievement (Bornstein et al., 2007). Plenty of research has been conducted on different parenting styles and that helps to become aware of means to enrich the child’s social competence, academic performance, psychosocial development as well as control problem behavior (Hoeve et al., 2008). Parenting can be defined on the basis of two components- responsiveness that means, parental
emotional characteristics and demandingness, that means set of parental guidelines and disciplines for the child (Fletcher et al., 2008). Both parenting responsive and demanding has been linked to secure attachment in children (Karavasilis, Doyle & Markiewicz, 2003). In terms of the interaction between these two dimensions, Baumrind (1971) classified parenting styles as of four types: Authoritative, Authoritarian, Permissive and Neglectful parenting. Among the different parenting styles authoritative parenting style is revealed as an optimal style. It is sensitive as well as democratic by which parents positively influence children and adolescents. That means this style helps to enrich the all round development of personality. This pattern contains the following elements: an expectation of mature behavior from the child and clear setting of standards by the parents; firm enforcement of rules and standards; encouragement of the child’s independence and individuality; open communication between parents and adolescents. The relationship between adolescents and their parents involve the expectations that youth have of their parents and the expectations that parents have about their adolescent children. Both the youth and their parents expect that across the adolescent age period young people will become more autonomous. That means, they are able to make their own decisions about their behavior. It is common sense that, parents and their adolescent experience a huge gulf in their outlooks, moral values and life styles and their interactions are formed in mutual incomprehension and distrust.

**Thirdly**, one of the core societal values that parents try to teach their children early on is altruism (Eisenberg, 1983). Prosocial behaviors have been defined as actions primarily intended to benefit others (Eisenberg, Fabes, & Spinrad, 2006). Hopkins & Powers (2009) inferred that, altruism is a motivation with an ultimate goal of enhancing the welfare of another. Robinson & Curry (2005) defined altruism as the manifestation of caring, selflessness which are non-contingent upon reward.
Consequently, most parents would like to foster the type of pro-social behavior that is purely altruistic in their children. In contrast, parental warmth should be related positively to sympathy and prosocial moral reasoning, whereas parental control (especially overtly strict control) should be related negatively or not significantly to such traits (Carlo, 2006; Eisenberg et al., 2006; see Pratt, Skoe, & Arnold, 2004). Children are more prosocial when they have formed more secure attachment relationships with their parents; when parents avoid punitive and strict discipline; when they use reasoning and provide explanations; when they are sensitive to their children’s needs and when they support their children’s experience and regulation of emotions (Hastings et al., 2000). There is a strong significant association between responsiveness, supportive and demanding and controlling nature of parents and adolescents pro-social behavior (Barber, Stolz & Olsen, 2005; Baumrind, 1991; Maccoby & Martin, 1983). Supportive parenting is characterized by high levels of parental warmth, positive affect and child centered orientation (Biringen & Robinson, 1991). Authoritative parenting provides pro-social behavior that children may emulate, encouraging children to be more caring and make children more receptive and foster altruistic behavior for others (Hastings et al., 2000).

There is considerable evidence that, prosocial behaviour is selflessly motivated social behaviors (e.g., Batson et al., 2002; Eisenberg, 2003); on the other hand, aggression is conceptualized as a selfishly motivated social behavior. Several researches (Krueger, Hics & Mc Gue, 200) indicate that pro social behaviour and anti social behaviour seem to be at opposite ends of the same continuum. If so the implication is that an aggressive person is not likely to show altruistic behavior and an altruistic person is not likely to show aggressive behavior. But, adolescents act both aggressively and altruistically, and sometimes can engage in both behaviors simultaneously (Feshbach and Feshbach, 1986; Zahn-Waxler et al., 1986).
Fourthly, anger, aggression and violence are experienced daily and in intensely personal ways especially for adolescents. Baron & Richardson (1994), generally defined aggression, as any behavior that is intended to harm another person. Puskar, et al. (2008) found that the more negative life events adolescents experience, the more likely they are to experience and express anger. There has been considerable interest in exploring the relations between various aspects of a child’s home environment and the development of aggressive behavior. Dhillon and Tung (2004) and Sandhu and Tung (2006) have also reported that family environments marked by openly expressed conflicts, anger and aggression hampers the well-being and mental health of adolescents thereby curbing their achievement of an identity. Adolescent anti-social behavior is related to poor child rearing practices, poor supervision, harsh discipline, parental disharmony, rejection of the children, and low involvement (Scott, 1998; Simons et al., 2007). Hostility and conflict in the marital relationship have adverse effects for children and adolescents and who, if

They witness violence between their parents, are more likely to engage in aggressive acts (Moretti et al., 2006). Buschgens et al., (2010) suggests that, adolescents who perceive a lack of emotional warmth and high levels of both rejection and overprotection, are more distracted, aggressive and display criminal tendencies. Also, it seems that perceived parental rejection may have a bigger effect on aggression and criminal behavior than on other symptoms such as lack of attention, impulsivity, or hyperactivity (Buschgens et al., 2010). According to Bradley & Corwyn, 2008), authoritarian parents may use harsh, punitive punishment that can instigate antisocial behavior of children with difficult temperament. Hostility and aggression between mother and father has also been linked with negative outcomes in adolescence, such as lower self esteem, internalizing and externalizing problems, poor social skills, and adolescent partner aggression (Allen, Hauser, O’Connor, Bell,
Fifthly, academic performance is a very important aspect in an adolescent’s life as well as a key criterion to judge his/her total potentialities and capacities (Nuthana & Yenagi, 2009). The latter are frequently measured by the school outcomes i.e. examination results. The national Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) in 1994 conducted a study to find out the relationship between study habits and academic performance of students. This study revealed a positive correlation between study habit and academic achievement. Study habits are a well-planned and deliberate pattern of study which attains a form of consistency on the part of the students toward understanding academic subjects and passing at examination. Good study habits act as a strong weapon for the students to excel in life. Singh (2011) examined academic achievement and study habits of higher secondary students. The results indicate that girls and boys differ significantly in their study habits and academic achievement. It found that effective study habits help students to achieve good results (Sadia, 2005). Poor study habits as observed by Kemjika (1998) definitely ends in poor academic performance. The child-rearing pattern of parents is also an important factor in good study habits as well as academic achievement of adolescents. Researchers have found strong positive relationships between parents initiate involvement practices and positive school outcomes (see Epstein and Sanders, 2002; Hess and Holloway, 1984; Hill et al., in press). Talib (2011) also found that, authoritative parenting style of mother and father has a positive effect on child behavior and school achievement. More specifically, studies show that high parental involvement leads to high achievement and low parental involvement leads to low achievement (Ahuja and Goyal, 2005). Research findings have also shown that a continued effort of parental involvement throughout the child’s education can
improve academic achievement (Driessen, Smit & Sleegers, 2005; Fan, 2001; Hong & Ho, 2005). Another study by Deslorges & Abouchar (2003) concluded that, parental involvement has a positive impact on children’s academic achievement even when background factors of such as social class and family size, has been taken into account. Authoritative parenting style is positively associated with students’ performance especially in academic achievement compared to authoritarian and permissive parenting styles (Steinberg, Lamborn, Darling, Mounts, & Dornbusch, 1994; Jackson, 2002).

So from all the above discussion it may be concluded that, parenting is an important determinant which affects the whole life of children. Right from the beginning parents take care of their children and this has an impact on the latter’s personality development and enable them to interact perfectly with social and close relationships. Parenting style has the greatest impact on children’s attitude, academic achievement and their career choice. It is believed that there are some roles and duties which are so efficiently performed by parents that children tend to accept these roles most readily than from any other person in their life. Children’s performance usually depends on the various parenting styles. It was found that when children had good relations with parents, they tended to show better social adjustment and emotional adjustment.

In considering these issues, the investigator observes that, there is an urgent need to explore the adolescent stage of life in the Indian context. In particular, there is a need to find whether different types of parenting can indeed affect an adolescent’s personal traits and resolve to study.